

CLASS MANAGEMENT TAYLOR

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ART OF CLASS MANAGEMENT AND DISCIPLINE

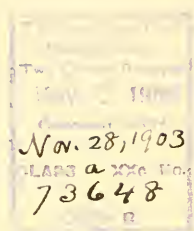
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Preface.

There are many works on school management that present the theory of school order and control from the point of view of the principal or superintendent. The pedagogical student learns in her normal or training school all about school virtues and motives. She is made acquainted with systematic treatises on the theory of school government. But after she has graduated and has come face to face with a class of mischievous boys, the theories that seemed so reasonable before are now strangely impotent. She finds that she is confronted by a condition, not a theory. Class management is an art and a fine art at that. An art must be acquired by practice; and if one would make rapid progress and avoid errors, a teacher is necessary.

This little book is intended as a slight contribution to the art of class discipline. It is offered to that hapless young woman who is just beginning to teach. Such a person is frequently of all

mortals the most miserable. A few weeks ago she came forth armed with a diploma eager to do battle in the educational arena. The hour has at last come, the battle is on, the odds are against her; and unless reinforcements come soon, surrender is inevitable. A message is sent to the commander-in-chief, who puts the enemy to flight for the moment; but to-morrow is coming, and how can one live through another day? If only the children kept quiet, how easy it would be to teach!

Each year a considerable number of teachers suffer nervous prostration and are obliged to secure leave of absence. Recovery from such a collapse is exceedingly slow, and in many cases the injury is irreparable. The testimony of the majority of these unfortunate sufferers who are known to the author, is to the effect that the break-down was caused by the strain of discipline. Many teachers of long experience, reputed excellent disciplinarians, are not really successful, because, while the order is excellent, the control costs too much in nervous expenditure. The aim proposed in this book is progressive training in self-government, which, in so far as it is accomplished, relieves the teacher from the intolerable strain of control by repression.

New York.

JOSEPH S. TAYLOR.

Contents.

Preface	3
Introduction	7
I. Justice the Basis of School Discipline	21
II. Characteristics of the Best Teacher	28
III. Some Factors of Discipline	38
IV. Devices of Class Government	49
V. Corporal Punishment	62
VI. Methods of Teaching Self-Government	76
VII. Class Room Decoration	92
VIII. The Care of School Property	100
IX. The Class Library	108

What one wishes to bring out here is that this new spirit in class management, which has a first and almost absolute regard for the cultivation of the power of self-government in the pupils, is by common consent part of the general movement which has been taking place in recent years. . . . On the surface, discipline would often appear to have ceased to be a teacher's art, and to have become a pupil's art. . . . In reality, however, the art is the teacher's, whereas the act is the scholar's. From the teacher's standpoint, the art of allowing liberty which leads on to self-government is quite as high an art as that of repressing liberty, which is teacher government. This is evidenced by the almost universal testimony that old world educators generally fail in the handling of classes of American children.—Michael E. Sadler's Report on American Education, London, 1902.

Introduction.

The character of an education is necessarily determined by the results which it is designed to accomplish. Every age has its own ideals: hence the problem of education has to be restated from time to time, and a final solution is impossible. Among the factors involved in the ideals of mankind are the progress of science and art, the industrial and social conditions, the political relations of citizens to the state and of the state to other states, the religious opinions and aspirations of the people, and their inherited physical, mental, and moral characteristics. These considerations should warn us against the folly of attempting to import a ready-made system of education from a foreign country. From the nature of the case such a system would be a misfit and, no matter how excellent in the abstract, it could not long endure, unmodified, in its new habitat.

Ideals of Education.

Plato says education is turning the soul toward the light. This is what is meant in

modern times by a "liberal" education,—the development of native capacity, the absorption of what is best in civilization, the enlightenment of intellect, the refinement of taste, and all quite regardless of any use, proximate or remote, in the practical sense, that may be made of such culture. "The term virtue," says Herbart, "expresses the whole purpose of education." This ideal, like that of Plato, looks to the perfection of the individual. Of like character is the education advocated by Montaigne, who observes that, whereas animals are guided by instincts which never change, children's inclinations are obscure and their promises uncertain; hence they should have a general culture first, before education for utility is undertaken. Milton borrows his ideal from Christian theology, claiming that the end of education is "to repair the ruins of our first parents by regaining to know God aright, and out of that knowledge to love, imitate, and be like him." Vastly more comprehensive than any of the preceding ideals is Spencer's conception of education as a preparation for "complete living," which comprises activities concerned in self-preservation, rearing of children, social and political relations, and the enjoyment of leisure. Still more radical is Dewey's contention that education is not a prep-

aration for living, but is life. Whatever may be our intentions as adults, from the child's point of view school is a very real part of the life he is now living. His plays, his tasks, his joys and sorrows, are just as real and serious to him as the occupations and experiences of grown up folks are to them. The problem of education, according to this view, is to supply materials and occupations which shall develop in the child social insight and power; but what he does in school must appeal to him as being worth doing for itself.

It is evident that school-room practice will in general be determined by the ideals thus set up by society as the goal of education. If the aim be individual perfection, the discipline will seek to cultivate the virtues of man as man. Thus Rousseau says of Emile: "On leaving my hands, he will not, I admit, be a magistrate, a soldier, or a priest; first of all, he will be a man. It is less important to keep him from dying than it is to teach him how to live." A teacher holding such views will employ a discipline that gives free play to the spontaneity of children. "True success," says President Charles W. Eliot, "consists in making children as unlike as possible." The pupil, "in school government, * * * must be his own dictator, judge, and jury," says another advocate of individualism.*

* "An Ideal School," P. W. Search, Appleton, 1901.

Such a doctrine, literally applied, will produce a state of disorder, which, in the case of weak teachers, inevitably ends in anarchy and failure.

In like manner, the social ideal of education will express itself in a peculiar school discipline. The emphasis in this case is not upon the child as an individual, but as a member of a community. He is to develop all his power, not for mere personal advantage, but in order that he may be a more useful member of society. In order thus to prepare a pupil for social living, he is to be trained in approved ways of thinking, feeling, and doing. This gives him "social insight and power." The aim is not to emphasize individual preferences, but to subordinate self for the good of the whole. In a sense it is the very antithesis of the individual method. In the one case the child is treated as if all the world existed for his advantage; his spontaneity is sacred, and if it interferes with the spontaneity of other people, so much the worse for other people. In the other case, the child is taught to regard the social whole as of the first importance, and himself as a member of it. His highest achievement is expressed in terms of social service, even as Christ has said: "Whosoever would become great among you, shall be your minister: and whosoever would be first among you, shall be servant of all."

Dogmas of Childhood.

(a) *Pagan*.—Of even greater consequence, in matters of discipline, than the general theory of education, is the attitude of an age toward childhood. We know that both the Greeks and the Romans had so little reverence for childhood that they frequently abandoned their offspring and allowed them to perish in the public highways. In Sparta, we are informed, the law required the father to carry his new-born infant to the Elders of the Community for inspection; if they found its limbs straight and its general appearance healthy, they returned it to be educated; otherwise it was killed. "We cannot really doubt," says Prof. John P. Mahaffy,* "from the free use of the idea in Greek tragedies, in the comedies of ordinary life, and in theories of political economy, that the exposing of new-born children was not only sanctioned by public feeling, but actually practiced throughout Greece." Even Plato, "the attic Moses," and noblest of Greek theorists, "sanctioned infanticide under certain circumstances. In the genteel comedy it is often mentioned as a somewhat painful necessity, but enjoined by prudence. Nowhere does the agony of the mother's heart reach us through their literature, save in one illustration used by the Platonic Socrates, where he compares the anger

* "Old Greek Education."

of his pupils, when first confuted out of their prejudices, to the fury of a young mother deprived of her first infant."

Among the Romans infanticide was a common practice, and was boldly defended by their best writers. "Monstrous offspring," says Seneca, "we destroy: children, too, if weak and unnaturally formed from birth, we drown. It is not anger, but reason, thus to separate the useless from the sound."

The theory underlying these horrible practices was that the *weak have no right to live*. According to the Darwinian explanation of Evolution, nature, by a process called "natural selection," weeds out the weak and preserves the strong. The Greeks and Romans were so anxious to produce a race of invincible warriors that they assisted nature by artificial selection. This is the most charitable view to take of the matter. They probably had other reasons for murdering infants less creditable than the desire to improve the human species.

(b) *Christian*.—The Founder of Christianity brought a new view of childhood into the world. From the accounts of his ministry in the Gospels it is safe to infer that He was a favorite among children and a defender of their rights. It is recorded that on one occasion, "they were bringing unto Him little children, that He should

lay His hands on them and pray, but when the disciples saw it, they rebuked them. But when Jesus saw it He was moved with indignation, and called them unto Him, and said unto them, ‘Suffer the little children to come unto Me; and forbid them not; for to such belongeth the Kingdom of God. Verily I say unto you, whosoever shall not receive the Kingdom of God as a little child, he shall in no wise enter therein,’ and He took them in His arms, and blessed them, laying His hands upon them.”* On another occasion, when the disciples were quarreling as to who should be the greatest in the new Kingdom, “Jesus called to Him a little child, and took him and set him by His side in the midst of them; and taking him in His arms, He said unto them, ‘Verily I say unto you, except ye turn, and become as little children, ye shall in no wise enter into the Kingdom of Heaven.’ ”

This tender regard for children and sympathetic appreciation of child-nature is the germ from which have come the orphan asylums, children’s hospitals, and all the numerous institutions for the nurture of defective and dependent children maintained by modern society. Not only do we now hold that *all children have a right to live*, but we try to thwart nature in her effort to destroy the weak by protecting them with all

* Cadman’s “Harmony of the Gospels,” Revell, 1886.

the resources of scientific discovery, human affection, and professional skill.

(c) *Theological*.—Such was in the beginning and is now the Christian attitude toward the child. But it was not always so. For hundreds of years the theological dogma that children are by nature depraved formed a part of the educational creed of Christendom. The government of both the family and the school was based on the theory of total depravity. It was the business of education, not to develop the natural powers of childhood, but to hinder and repress, to crush and destroy all the natural bent of the soul, and to produce a new creature. To use a term of Riley's, we might describe it as a process of "rearrangin'" nature. The will had to be "broken." The natural inclinations of the child, the spontaneous interests which are so eagerly sought by the modern educator, were regarded as the promptings of a sinful nature, and treated as moral leprosy. "Let not Paula be found in the ways of the world," wrote St. Jerome, "but rather in the company of her kindred and in retirement. She must not learn the use of wine, eat principally vegetables, and always be a little hungry." Milton's famous definition of education as the process of "regaining to know God" we have already quoted. The various Acts and Preambles by which the

New England Fathers established free, public, and compulsory education show that they had in view two main objects: (1) To prepare intelligent citizens for the commonwealth; (2) To enable these citizens to study and understand the Scriptures in their native tongue. Education was intended to fit men to live properly in the Colony of Massachusetts during this life, and in heaven hereafter! There was no liberty, no individuality, no spontaneity, for either parent or child. Even religion was compulsory. The parent was coerced by the State to pay his tax and to send his children. There was no liberty for the child. He was obliged to go to school, whether he liked it or not; and he was under harsh treatment when he went. In Germany the remarkable series of schools founded by Francke had for their basic principle of discipline the proposition that children are by nature bad and that it is the object of education to uproot the evil and implant the good. "Play," he insisted, "must be forbidden in any and all of its forms. The children shall be instructed in this matter in such a way as to show them through the presentation of religious principles, the wastefulness and folly of all play."

(d) *Romantic*.—Rousseau was the first writer that successfully attacked this doctrine of childish depravity. His opening words of the first

book of the *Emile* are: "Everything is good as it comes from the hands of the Author of things; everything degenerates in the hands of man." It follows from this that a child must be allowed to follow his inclinations in everything. Education is chiefly negative, and consists in letting the child alone with nature. There is no such thing as discipline. The only habit *Emile* is to have is the habit of forming no habits. Of course, Rousseau does not believe in schools, but if he did, he would say with Mr. Search that in school government the child must "be his own dictator, judge, and jury."

(c) *Evolutionary*.—The theory of evolution has superseded the theologic and romantic conceptions of childhood in educational doctrine. The one cried, "Crush nature," the other said, "Reverently follow nature." The new says, in the words of Froebel: "I see in every child the possibility of a perfect man." The infant is not wholly good, nor wholly bad. It has in it tendencies of both kinds; but it consists chiefly of an undeveloped plastic organism, which may be adapted to many kinds of environment. The lower animals have a very brief period of infancy and are governed by instinct. The bee learns nothing from his parents; he is perfectly adapted to his environment at birth; but he can do his work in only one way. Man has a period

of infancy enormously prolonged. "That is to say, the length of time that it takes for the human child in this generation so to adapt himself to his surroundings as to be able to succeed in them, to make them his own, is almost, if not quite thirty years."* Every educator of the present generation conceives the process of education in terms of adjustment. The Herbartian has his "core" of literature and history, because these put the pupil in possession of his race heritage. Dr. Harris believes that the pupil's "correlation" with his environment of nature and human nature can best be effected by a five-fold co-ordination.† Dewey would secure social "insight" by making typical occupations the articulating centers of school work.‡ Butler thinks the pupil requires a five-fold "adaptation"; that is, human environment consists of at least five elements which the child must appropriate in order to be really human. All these writers are presenting an evolutionary view of education. "The doctrine of development says of the child, here is an immature being. He is not adapted to the environment in which he has to live. He does all sorts of things that would

* Butler: "The Meaning of Education," p. 12. Macmillan, 1898.

† Report of Committee of Fifteen.

‡ Dewey: "School and Society." University of Chicago Press.

injure him, and fails to do a great many things that are quite essential to a happy and successful life in this environment. In short, considered with reference to the immediate present, this child is about as poorly adapted to life as any one easily could be. But, continues the doctrine of development, this is, after all, not so bad as it might be, for the child has certain redeeming characteristics. He has the possibilities of variations and adjustments in a much higher degree than we older people. Where we fail to fit our environments, we are generally so fixed in our habits that we cannot easily change. If we are unadapted now, we continue unadapted to the end. The child, on the other hand, has the largest possibilities of fitting himself to his environment.”*

New Ideals of Discipline.

We are now prepared to see the relation of this new ideal of education to the problem of discipline. We no longer look upon the child as a depraved being whose spontaneous impulses are to be suppressed. Nor do we look upon him as a being wholly good, whose every whim is to be regarded as an expression of the infallible wisdom of nature. We regard him as an undeveloped and unadapted organism. “We do not

* Judd: “Genetic Psychology for Teachers,” p. 113. Appleton, 1903.

punish a child now because we wish to mete out to him vengeance for his infraction of law. * * * Teachers of to-day who understand the real meaning of punishment do not get angry at children. * * * We look upon the child's mistakes and failures as phases [perfectly normal] of the process of development. We correct these shortcomings as a part of our *general duty of supervising development*.”*

Many children are unlovely, uncouth, unclean, untruthful. A recent study of children's faults shows that in the judgment of teachers, by far the greatest source of annoyance in school is inattention. Parents find disobedience the cardinal sin, and children themselves think fighting and bullying are their worst faults.† In the light of psychology, inattention is clearly the result of lack of interest; and lack of interest is the result of poor teaching. Shall the teacher, therefore, get angry and scold and punish pupils? How much more rational it is to try to find the cause of the trouble and remove it.

Investigation shows that about ten per cent. of our pupils have some physical or intellectual or moral defect. These are half blind or half deaf, or suffer from some nervous

* Judd: "Genetic Psychology for Teachers," p. 114. Appleton, 1903.

† "A Study of the Faults of Children." Triplett, Ped. Sem., Vol. X, p. 200.

disorder, or inherit some mental or moral peculiarity which causes them to fall behind in their lessons and become the butt of scorn and ridicule, and subject to painful and humiliating punishments. About one per cent. of public school children are so defective that they cannot profitably be taught with normal children. It has been shown again and again that the children who make trouble in class belong in nearly every instance to the defective class. Yet we constantly assume that a child who falls behind is simply lazy; one who cannot sit still is wilfully disobedient; if he cannot march in time, he falls out of step on purpose. Nine times out of ten, if the truth were known, the children who are punished and disliked in school are more sinned against than sinning. A sympathetic study of these perverts will show us that what we call their faults are nearly always their misfortunes. No child is habitually unlovely from choice. No child elects to be born in a home of poverty, vice, or crime. He does not select his parents, nor his training. He is what he is by virtue of forces wholly without his control. He is sent to school just because he is mal-adjusted and needs guidance. They that are whole need not a physician. If children were perfect the school teacher would be quite superfluous.

II.

Justice the Basis of School Discipline.

School Order Defined.

In every class there are some troublesome children. How large a proportion of the class are "bad" depends chiefly upon the skill of the teacher. A very weak teacher is likely to call the entire class bad. A very strong one may not admit that any are bad. But still, the best of teachers is likely to have a number of pupils who are less tractable and more mischievous than the others. And if he have no reason to complain of any one's disorder, he is certain to find fault with some because they do not prepare their lessons and are inattentive.

The economy of teaching demands that there shall be good order in the class so that all the pupils may be able to receive the instruction of the teacher without interruption or annoyance. How to secure this order is the first problem the

teacher is called upon to solve ; for without it his teaching efforts are but a waste of time.

School order has been defined as "that state or condition of a school in which the best educative work is done in the most economical manner."* Good order does not consist primarily in a given posture, but in that interested, unconstrained attitude of each pupil which in his case produces the desired impression of the teacher in the most economical and effective manner. Class instruction, however, puts certain limitations upon the conduct of pupils which do not appear in individual instruction. One of these is that they shall speak aloud only when asked or permitted to do so ; for otherwise many pupils might be speaking at once and so no profit could come to any. As a rule in large classes good order demands that pupils shall not whisper unless they have permission to do so. There are occasions, however, when it is a distinct advantage to allow children to confer with each other, as for instance before or after physical exercise, while the windows are thrown open to ventilate the room. Three or four times a day this should occur, and then children, within reasonable limits, should be allowed to do as they please. The relaxation thus secured is a great relief to the pupil and

* "Talks on Pedagogics," Parker, p. 337, E. L. Kellogg & Company, 1894, New York.

enables him to take up his duties with renewed pleasure and profit.

Order and Discipline.

It is well to bear in mind the distinction between order and discipline. Teachers often deceive themselves by neglecting this important difference; but they seldom deceive an experienced principal or superintendent. The order in a class may be good; there may be no uproar or confusion; the children may even sit in uniform and erect positions; and at the same time the discipline may be bad.

I call a class badly disciplined if it cannot be left in a room without a teacher. Order may be the result of many other causes besides class discipline. It may come from fear or love, or the constant vigilance of the teacher, or the principal's discipline of the school as a whole. Discipline consists in the habit of obedience. It is revealed in regularity and punctuality of attendance; in the self-control of the pupils in and out of school; in the personal appearance of children — their habits of cleanliness and neatness; and in the care and fidelity with which they perform their tasks.

Obedience and Command.

When a teacher selects a pupil to act as monitor he always takes a "good" boy. The as-

sumption underlying this fact is that a pupil who is not himself obedient is unfit to govern others. The same principle applies to a teacher. If he expects to be obeyed he must himself be a model of the obedience which he exacts from others. The first step of a teacher in learning to govern a class consists in obeying his principal and other official superiors. If he is not willing cheerfully and uncomplainingly to receive orders he is unfit to give orders to others. That there is no such thing as command without obedience is well illustrated by the disciplining of Captain Chadwick of the United States navy. The *New York Times*, in commenting editorially on this case, said:

“We are in the habit of thinking of the officers of our army and navy chiefly with reference to the power they represent, the command they exercise, the obedience they can exact. We do not realize, until some such incident as that of Capt. Chadwick presents itself, that it is obedience and not command that really is the controlling element in their lives. And this is true throughout all ranks. There is not a soldier or sailor from the recruit enlisted last week to the general commanding or the admiral of the navy who is not bound in honor and in fact to the most complete obedience to his superiors, and the lowest is not more bound than the highest. At the summit stands the president of the United States, the commander-in-chief of

the army and the navy, and he in his turn is bound by the constitution and the laws, and is subject to trial before a tribunal duly provided."

The teacher may make clear to children the reasonableness of a system of class government by frequently calling their attention to these hierarchies of duty and obedience. The teacher must obey the principal; the principal must obey the superintendent; and all three must obey the board of education; the board of education, the mayor who appoints them; and the mayor, the laws made by the people through the legislature.

Teachers who are opinionated, intractable, and inclined to demur at orders are frequently the most rigid and uncompromising rulers of children. Let all such reflect upon the relation of obedience to command, and resolve to become worthy of governing others by the loyal obedience which they render to their superiors.

Justice and Efficiency.

The two primary factors of good school government are justice and efficiency. Where either or both of these qualities are lacking there can be no good discipline. Children do not render willing obedience to a teacher who is unfair. They cannot define just government; but they intuitively perceive the difference between justice and injustice in the authority to which they are subject. Therefore a teacher must not be arbi-

trary; must not make a rule at ten o'clock and ignore it at twelve; must not have one rule for "good" children and another for "bad" children. He must do exactly what he has promised — no more and no less. As a rule it is better not to promise at all, nor to threaten; but to say little and act; for actions speak louder than words. The world never fears a boaster, whose bark is worse than his bite. Children do not fear a teacher who is constantly telling what he will do if so-and-so happens. But they stand in awe of the silent, self-centered man or woman who wastes no time on words, but comes with swift and certain retribution upon evil-doers.

Anger is a common source of injustice; therefore do not lose control of your temper. The central fact of manhood and womanhood is self-control. Every time a teacher loses this, he exhibits to his class a defect of character which undermines the respect of his pupils for himself. If you must occasionally exhibit righteous indignation, "be angry and sin not;" do not, while you are passionate, threaten or punish. If you do, you are almost certain to be unjust.

Above all, as you value the good opinion of your principal and fellow-teachers, and the respect of your pupils, *do not scream nor scold!* The scold has been from time immemorial the butt

of scorn. A scolding teacher is a nuisance in any school.

Those who enter the profession cannot too soon begin to watch their tongues and their tempers; for on the control of these two depends in large measure their success.

Justice, however, is not the only essential of good discipline. Class government may be *just*, but *inefficient*. A state may have an excellent system of courts and laws and civil administration; but unless there be also a military arm strong enough to quell riot and repel invasion, such government is a failure. A teacher must be just, but he must also be strong. He is to be quiet and self-possessed; but he must not mistake meekness for weakness. He is to be kind and sympathetic, but firm. He can be generous only after he has conquered; and for a teacher to speak of gentleness in a disorderly class is as if the lamb should talk of being kind to the lion. Conquer at all hazards, first yourself and then the class, remembering always that you must be just.

III.

Characteristics of the Best Teacher

He Relies on Himself.

One of the important elements of success in class control is the early determination to rely upon yourself. The first pronounced result of such a course will be a greatly increased respect of your pupils for yourself. Children admire a teacher who can help himself.

Class control is the joint product of experience and native endowment. Some people are naturally gifted in the power of controlling others. They govern classes easily without experience, while others catch the trick only after years of practice and partial failure. Some never learn it at all. The old "Monitorial System" had some good features in it that might well be copied to-day. Pupils were put in charge of classes, and only those who gave unmistakable evidence of possessing the power of control were

allowed to take the special training which qualified them to become regular paid teachers.

If candidates for training and normal schools were required to furnish proof of their possession of the power to govern others as a prerequisite for admission, it would save a great deal of trouble in schools and protect many young people against the fatal error of choosing the wrong profession.

He Does Not Detain Children After School Hours.

Another characteristic which children admire in a teacher almost as much as the ability to help himself is the habit of dismissing the class promptly at the close of school hours. I am convinced that nothing is gained by habitually detaining pupils, that is not lost twice over in some other way. I never knew a teacher with the *detaining habit* who was not disliked by the majority of her pupils. Nothing so embitters children as being daily kept in after school. The day is long; the school-rooms are improperly ventilated at best; children love the free air; many of them have errands to run, music lessons to take, newspapers to sell, etc. For all these reasons they resent your infringement of their liberty.

“Suppose a child refuses to do his work; what can we do if we don’t keep him in?” You can assign the task for a home lesson, provided it is

not forbidden by the by-laws. "Suppose he still refuses?" Assign it again and charge it up against the pupil each day until it is done. At the end of the day or week or month report to the parents their child's neglect, being careful to secure the principal's signature upon all such notes or reports. If, after all these efforts on your part, pupils still refuse to do their work, turn them over to the principal.

He Secures the Respect of His Pupils.

The success of class government depends very largely upon the pupil's opinion of his teacher. The teacher is free to express his opinion of his pupils and may think it of no consequence what the pupils think of him. It is of infinite consequence. If you will reflect a moment you will see that your class discipline is your moral education of the child. Can such moral education be really ennobling unless the pupil have *respect* for the teacher? You can not make all pupils love you; but unless you have the respect of your worst one, you have not altogether succeeded.

What is the basis of this respect? The ability to take care of yourself — self-reliance — is one source. That we have already shown.

Justice is another. Whatever you do in the way of discipline must appeal to the pupil as being *just*. For this reason *class* punishment is a

mistake. The innocent feel that they are unjustly punished. Better to allow a few guilty ones to escape than to lay yourself open to the charge of having unjustly punished the majority.

The Good Teacher Described by Children. .

The discussion, by H. E. Kratz, of the "Characteristics of the Best Teacher," presents the matter from the pupil's point of view.* It furnishes an answer to the question, What sort of teacher do pupils admire? It will do us no harm to compare ourselves with the ideal pictured by the 2,400 children who were questioned by Mr. Kratz. They were asked to think of the best teacher they ever had, and then to write in half a dozen sentences a description of her. The following is a summary of their answers:

73 per cent. said she helped them in their studies; they felt that she made it worth while for them to come to school.

58 per cent. were attracted by the personal appearance of the teacher.

55 per cent. said she was good or kind.

9 per cent. loved her for her patience.

7 per cent. were impressed by her politeness.

4 per cent. by her neatness.

2 per cent. liked her because she was cross.

**Pedagogical Seminary*, Vol. III., p. 413.

The following statements selected from various papers show us still further the thought of children in such matters :

“ She could stand some fun.”

“ She had no pets.”

“ The children feel as if she was one of them.”

“ She liked me and showed it once in a while.”

“ She always got our attention.”

“ She always wanted me to be thoughtful.”

“ Her actions helped me to do better.”

“ If you did not get your lessons, she was so sorry that it made you ashamed.”

“ She took a great deal of interest in us.”

“ She was interested in her pupils’ habits and readings.”

“ Put us on our honor.”

“ By making things pleasant, so I felt like working.”

“ Her manner seemed to give me an inspiration to work.”

“ She never punished the pupils because she didn’t feel good.”

“ Does not scold us one time, then be awful good for awhile.”

“ Never flew off the handle.”

“ Always meant what she said.”

The following description was written by an 8th grade pupil :

"The best teacher I ever had was kind and gentle and had a beautiful character, but was not at all 'soft.' She could change her disposition at a moment's notice, if circumstances required it. But was not quite strict enough. She acted on her pupil's honor and therefore procured better results than, I think, if she had kept her eye on them all the time; and one good thing about her was that she did not make any *foolish*, *silly* rules that were unnecessary, but the ones she made the children must live up to."

Every phrase in this simple composition is weighted with wisdom. In the first place, children read your character: "Was kind and gentle and had a beautiful character," says the little philosopher. Their sharp eyes read us like an open volume, and still more, their instinct guides their unconscious judgments in these matters. They know whether we are sincere or not, whether we have any real interest in their welfare, or teach simply to earn our salaries.

He Teaches Faithfully and Successfully.

From the above descriptions it is evident that *good teaching* is an important element of successful class discipline. Of the 2,400 children examined, seventy-three per cent. liked their teachers because they could *teach*. The easiest way to control a class is to keep it profitably employed all the time. "Idleness is the devil's workshop."

A busy child has no time or inclination to plot mischief. In order to be able thus to furnish steady employment to fifty or sixty busy brains a teacher must carefully arrange the day's work at home, so that he knows at any given moment exactly what he is going to do next.

It is an excellent plan to have at hand some extra work that is pleasant and profitable for bright children who get through with their tasks before the majority of the others have finished. This is not to be mere "busy" work without definite relation to the subject in hand, but is to be as a rule a part of the same subject. If the class are drawing, bright children can do two specimens while mediocre and slow pupils complete one. If the lesson is arithmetic, there may be two grades of work, both of the same kind, the bright pupils being permitted (not required) to take the more difficult. Sometimes mischievous children have a special talent or interest, an appeal to which may accomplish their control or reformation. The talent may be drawing. In this case let the pupil fill up spare time by drawing maps, designs, illustrations, etc., for the teacher. If his strong point is reading, let him at the proper time read to the class out of supplementary readers. If he can write well, there is abundant opportunity to encourage him in that.

He Encourages Children.

“By making things pleasant so I felt like working,” writes one pupil. Children need encouragement as much as adults need it. A teacher known to the writer recently secured a transfer from a certain school because her principal had the peculiarity of always picking out the flaws in her work and never praising the part that had no flaws. Hundreds of children suffer the same kind of thoughtless criticism. Their teachers find fault with all their imperfections, but never encourage them by praise when they do well.

Children are human as well as teachers. They become discouraged if they think they are not appreciated, and conclude that there is no use in trying. When a child has made a reasonable effort to do what he is told, even though he be not entirely successful, give him some credit. Say, “I believe John has tried; and while the result is not quite as good as I want it, I believe he will do better next time.” Be very sure, however, that the pupil really has made an earnest effort before you indulge in such speeches; for if he has not tried hard and knows it, he immediately puts you in the class of teachers called “soft;” and from that day forward your discipline, so far as he is concerned, will be a failure. You

cannot morally train a child who considers you a fool.

He Lays Great Stress Upon Honor.

“Truthfulness is better than the truth,” Phillips Brooks once said. So a good disciplinarian places truthfulness and honor above every other school virtue. The ultimate object of school government is to teach the pupil self-control. Man alone of the animal creation is destined to be governed by reason. This is his steering gear, and the machinery is very imperfect at first; only after a long period of tutelage does he get possession of himself. He is not a man until the stage of self-mastery has been reached. A child who is watched and controlled every moment of the day has no opportunity to develop the power of self-direction. Hence the teacher must get rid of the watching habit. He is no detective; and he must not treat the child as if he were a thief. Pupils must understand that it is dishonorable to misbehave in the absence of the teacher. Classes can be so trained that they may be left alone without danger of disturbance. Even “bad” children like to be trusted. If you find it necessary to leave the room, say: “Shall I appoint a monitor to watch you, or would you rather take care of yourselves?” Children will always prefer the latter course. Make it a rule that the one time of all

times when the class and the individual must be models of propriety is when the teacher's back is turned or when he is out of the room. Have it understood once for all that you allow no "tattling;" every child confesses *his own sins*, and not his neighbor's. The great majority of pupils will confess what they have done in your absence; the few who are too mean and cowardly to do it, should be made to feel the displeasure of the teacher and class so keenly that they will find "honesty the best policy" on the next similar occasion.

Horace Mann once said: "Be ashamed to die until you have won some victory for humanity." I sometimes feel like saying to teachers: "Be ashamed to get sick until your pupils can be put upon their honor; for otherwise they will disgrace you every time you are away from school."

In a well-disciplined class the order so nearly takes care of itself that the entire attention of teacher and pupils is fixed upon the work in hand. Only under such circumstances can the best teaching be done.

No class should be required to sit very long in a constrained position of attention. Vary the exercises frequently, changing from written work to oral, from hearing to speaking, from impression to expression, from manual exercise to thought work, etc. Half the disorder of classes is caused by the fatigue of children.



Some Factors of Discipline.

Executive Ability.

Executive ability is indispensable to good discipline. Where this is wanting, nothing can compensate for the deficiency. Pestalozzi, it is true, lacked it and was a great man still. But his want of power in this respect made him a failure as a practical teacher and organizer. If his executive ability had been commensurate with the greatness of his heart, he might have avoided many of the sorrows of his life and turned his numerous failures into successes.

Some one has defined executive ability as the "power to get things done." The president of the United States cannot run the government alone. Of the millions of things for whose faithful performance he is responsible he can himself do only a few. Nevertheless, as the executive of the nation he is sworn to see that all the laws

of the United States are carried out. What he cannot do himself he must do by agents. Therefore one of the most important functions of the president is the appointment of subordinate officers to assist him in administering the government. The management of a great commercial establishment like Wanamaker's requires executive ability of a high order. Mr. Wanamaker takes a man who has himself failed in business and uses him to run a department successfully. He himself cannot possibly know all the details of his great establishments, but he manages to get things done. Each department is ready with appropriate goods in time for the seasons as they come around, each is run at a profit and is provided with clerks who know their business and are polite to customers. The proprietor does not directly look after any of these details, probably, and yet it is through him that everything is done; he is the life, the organic spirit, of the whole concern; and when he dies his business will doubtless die with him, as A. T. Stewart's did when he died.

Coming down into a smaller field, the principal of a school is held responsible for getting things done. There is, however, an important difference between this case and the others cited. A business man selects his own subordinates; if they fail to get things done, they receive a

little envelope with a note that runs like this: "Dear Madam: You are hereby notified that your services are no longer required." A principal is not authorized to write notes of that sort. He does not select his agents, nor does he discharge them. Instead of dismissing incompetent assistants, he is required to train them to do their work as required by law. This duty is pleasant enough so long as he has apt pupils; but when these lack docility, it makes his path a thorny one.

The class teacher needs executive ability. He also must "get things done." And in this respect teachers differ in glory as one star differeth from another. Some always have things done at the required time. Roll books, progress books, reports, are ready when called for; a definite portion of the grade work in each subject is completed every month; at the end of the term the entire grade is completed. Every subject is reviewed constantly, so that at any moment the class can give an intelligent and comprehensive retrospect of all that has been studied. It is a common mistake of inexperienced teachers to suppose that when a thing is once understood by a class no further effort is required on the part of the teacher in that direction. On the contrary, mere instruction, the bare statement of a fact, or explanation of a rule or

principle, is but a small part of teaching. No teacher can hope to succeed who does not make systematic provision for *drill*—constant and thorough—in all the things he teaches. At least once a month all the ground that has been covered should be gone over again. The monthly review should include not merely the month's work, but all the previous work of the grade and of every lower grade. In a very intimate way, this review and drill work is related to the discipline of a class. You never find mental alertness in pupils where the discipline is poor; nor do you find thoroughness of review and drill in a disorderly class.

Drill as Related to Discipline.

Hardly too much stress can be laid upon these drills and reviews. They are the *discipline of instruction*. When I go into a room and ask a class what they have read a majority of pupils should be able to give me not only the titles of the pieces, but the substance of each lesson. And then, when I turn to one of the lessons that have been studied and call upon a pupil to read, he should be able to do so intelligently and without many hesitations and mispronunciations. A teacher who so drills his pupils need be afraid of no principal's test or superintendent's visit. I hear much complaint about pupils being unprepared for their grades. This is almost wholly

due to the neglect of reviews and drills. All teachers go over the grade in a way, but unless the drills are kept up, the instruction fades away in a night.

Discharging Pupils.

When you learn that a pupil is about to leave school you should at once take steps to have his books returned. These he received from you, and to you he is primarily responsible. Do not shift this duty upon the principal. His faithful and efficient teachers always attend to this matter themselves. They also see that the pupil who is leaving secures written authority from his parents for his discharge. This note endorsed by the teacher, with the additional statement that the books have been returned in good condition, is sent with the pupil to the principal, who then has before him all the evidence required for a legal discharge of the child.

Giving Out Material.

Order and system must be observed in all things, especially in giving out and collecting material. From time to time children require pencils, pens, rulers, compasses, scissors, palletes, brushes, drawing kits, supplementary readers, etc. There is a proper way to pass and to return such things. The aim is to handle the material in the shortest possible time, with the least possible confusion, and with the absolute

certainty that every article given out is returned again.

When a young teacher first realizes the need of system, in such matters, he sometimes over-refines his method and invents a plan that consumes too much time. The process should be as simple as possible and should usually require but a single order from the teacher. I have seen classes that required five or six orders to pass a set of pencils. Life is too short for so much useless exertion. Let the teacher save his voice for teaching.

There are so many good ways of doing such things that no description of any process will be attempted here. New teachers will do well to seek information from their more experienced brethren. One caution, however, is submitted; namely: Do not allow pupils to use the school rulers except during the drawing period. Rulers are noisy and unnecessary. Children can be trained to rule ordinary lesson papers without a guide. Another precaution will save the beginner much trouble. In giving out clothing, never allow any pupil to put on his coat until all the coats have been given out.

Class Spirit.

This is an index of good discipline. Many classes are orderly enough, but manifest no class spirit. By this is meant the pride or satisfaction

a pupil feels in his class. It may be stimulated by having a number of features peculiar to the class, such as a class poet, class colors or badges, decorations, plants, pets (like white rats, birds, turtles, and rabbits). Of like value are class scrap-books, collections, and libraries. Without appealing to the vanity and selfish rivalry of children, the teacher ought to create in his pupils the feeling that Peter expressed on the Mount: "*It is good for us to be here!*"

The Tone of a Class.

Another safe index of the discipline of a class is a group of facts that constitute what may be called the class tone. This is revealed by the sentiments, manners, morals, and personal appearances of children. One becomes conscious of the tone of a class by the voices in which the members speak, the expression of their countenances, and the kind of language they use. Loyalty to the class, school, teacher, and principal, is evidence of a high tone. Cleanliness and neatness of person and attire speak for themselves. One often finds classes of which the majority have clean hands and faces, well-kempt hair, polished shoes; and in the same school other classes in which there is wholesale untidiness. Filthy children have no self-respect. There is little use in preaching of a clean heart to a fellow who has not had a good bath within a

month. The early Christians did not associate cleanliness and godliness as we are doing it now. In fact, they distinctly taught that the body must be condemned even if cleanliness is neglected. That ancient theology has a good many devotees in these days. But a high-toned class must propagate the gospel of soap. Every public school ought to have a bath, or at least a lavatory. If I had my choice between a modeling-room and a bath-room I should have the bath.

In this matter, however, much can be accomplished by kindness and tact, even without the facilities alluded to. The experienced teacher picks out clean children and compliments them. This suggestion, often repeated, is sufficient for the majority of the unclean. Such gentle measures, if insufficient, may be supplemented by a polite note to the mother requesting her co-operation.

Punishments.

Up to this point we have discussed matters upon which there is probably a general agreement. Now we approach a theme on which there exists a wide difference of opinion. Whatever attitude one takes he is sure to be criticised by one school of educators or another. We shall therefore boldly advocate what experience has taught us to be a necessity, regardless of utopian

theories invented by people who are not engaged in the actual work of teaching.

This discussion is intended primarily for beginners. Beginners always have more or less trouble with the discipline; so true is this, as every principal knows, that too large a proportion of novices will demoralize an entire school. Ordinarily the resources of an inexperienced teacher are exhausted in a few minutes or hours. First he scolds the children; then he whips them; then he sends them to the principal. Where corporal punishment is prohibited his armory contains only the two weapons, scolding and reporting.

It is intended by what follows to offer a number of suggestions which will increase the available means for maintaining order at the disposal of the beginner. My reply to all critics is in advance that *order must be maintained at all hazards*, and if it cannot be done by the best method, then let it be done by an inferior one. It is better to appeal to motives which might be open to criticism from the highest ideal point of view than to attempt to teach *under conditions of disorder which offer no moral possibilities whatever*. Children have a wholesome contempt for people who come into a class-room and deliver gentle homilies on virtue, but lack the moral force to maintain order. Such teachers remind

me of a missionary who proclaims peace and good will among cannibals *and is eaten up for his pains!*

It has already been said that the teacher must rely upon himself if he would enjoy the respect of his pupils. But in order to succeed thus he should have a large reserve fund of resources. It is quite impossible for a successful disciplinarian to explain how he governs. You may control by an occasional glance, by the tone of your voice, by your mere presence. A skilful teacher wields a subtle influence that cannot be weighed, measured, or defined. Nevertheless, it is possible to name some elements that we know to be present in good discipline. Among these are the following:

(a) A pupil must be made to feel that you are kind at heart and a friend of children.

(b) He should believe in your fairness and in the absolute sincerity of all you do and say.

(c) He should know that you never punish out of revenge, anger, or prejudice. A mother came to my school one day in answer to a summons, because her boy had disobeyed, and said: "Johnny acknowledges that he is in the wrong, and speaks of his teacher in the highest terms." That was the triumph of a fine character. There are, however, mothers of a different type, who tell you how good Johnny is at home and in

Sunday school. They cannot understand why he should be bad in your school. There is more hope of reforming the worst little reprobate out of jail who has no parents, than there is of saving children who have been petted by doting mammas into self-righteous sneaks and hypocrites.

(d) The public opinion of the class and school is a powerful factor of discipline. This attaches to each teacher a certain rank. The teaching corps is organized by the little philosophers into a hierarchy, in which the various orders and ranks may or may not correspond with the official rank. Teachers are discussed in the playground and on the street. Things that occur in the class-rooms become public property in the little school world. And thus a body of tradition grows up about each teacher. Ask a pupil about a given teacher and he will give you a more or less accurate estimate of his character and success. When time for promotion comes, he knows definitely that he would like to go to A's class rather than B's for reasons satisfactory to himself. The school world is either for or against you, and your discipline is correspondingly easy or difficult.

The number and importance of these silent influences that work for or against you determine to what extent your class government is accomplished by conscious control and the authority of the principal.

II.

Devices of Class Government.

Graded Punishments.

The strongest teacher usually has certain devices by which he apparently governs his class. Each teacher ultimately evolves a system peculiar to himself. There may be a thousand ways of accomplishing a given result. Weak teachers usually make the mistake of firing their heaviest guns at the start, and if they fail in this nothing is left but to fall back upon the principal. His assistance ought to be the very last factor in your calculations. The following list comprises a few of the possible modes of correcting disorder :

- (a) A glance in the direction of the offender.
- (b) A quiet summoning to the desk by beckoning, and a kind but firm reminder that his conduct is objectionable.
- (c) A second summoning and one demerit.

(d) Two demerits.

(e) A reprimand and five demerits.

(f) Tell pupil to change his seat temporarily and sit by his teacher's desk, informing him quietly that inasmuch as it is necessary to watch him you want to make it as convenient for yourself as possible; this and five demerits more.

(g) Refuse to allow him to go on with the lesson; let him sit with his arms folded for five or ten minutes, then let him write a careful letter on the propriety of obeying one's teacher. If this is not properly done, charge up a lesson against him and ask him to bring it next morning. More demerits.

By this time the session is probably at an end. Do all this with becoming dignity and self-control. Do not betray anger or annoyance, because that is a sign of weakness. As long as you are cool he is afraid of you, because he instinctively knows that you have power in reserve. When you get angry and threaten, he knows that you have nearly reached the limit of your resources.

Before the beginning of the new session, take him aside and say to him, "My boy, I want you to tell me now, before the lessons begin, what you intend to do this afternoon. You know I cannot allow you to interrupt the class again, and I tell you *now* that I *would* not allow it even

if I could. What are you going to do about it? ”

My experience is that such a pupil will make no more trouble that day.

Now, suppose a child talks when he has been told to keep still. The teacher is angry and says: “If you repeat that I shall send you to the principal.” The pupil does repeat it and is sent to the office. This teacher has not exhausted her resources. A hasty threat has made it necessary for her to resort to the extreme penalty at a single bound, when, if she had but kept cool, she might have found a dozen remedies within her own control.

You will notice that in the above list of class punishments I have not included writing a note to the parent or keeping in after school. These are still in reserve before it is necessary to call on the principal.

Debits and Credits.

In the preceding discussion I made some reference to demerits. The use of these marks can be made a very effective force in class discipline. The method is as follows:

Rule a book, as shown in the accompanying diagram, and enter each day the merits or demerits of children.

A space is made for each day because a boy often wants to know when he received his marks.

It is important for pupils to believe that the book is absolutely correct. It should be kept in ink so that there may be no temptation to erase marks. The pupil who keeps the book must have the confidence of the class, and just as soon as he loses that he should be discharged.

It is probably better to have two monitors, one for the debits and one for the credits. These monitors sit near the teacher and always put the record into the teacher's desk before the class is dismissed.

What are the credits? They are marks that you allow for all forms of well-doing, either in lessons or in conduct. After a writing lesson, every boy who has satisfied you receives a credit; if his work is very good, two credits. If the home work is neat he receives a credit. If he copies something carefully into his note-book, his reward is a credit. If he has been in disorder and bravely confessed it, he gets a credit for his honesty, even if he receives demerits for his offence. There is almost a magic power in credits. To earn one of these marks a child will perform marvels of industry and good behavior.

On Friday, at twelve o'clock, the monitors make out their reports for the week. The teacher then tabulates the results. The marks for Friday afternoon are counted in the week following.

Week Ending March 17, 1899.	DEBITS						CREDITS					
	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Friday	Total	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Friday	Total
Smith	1					8						10
Jones												
Brown												

These marks should be kept in ink. Monitor never enters or erases a mark except upon the teacher's express order. There may be separate books and monitors for debits and credits. To insure confidence in these monitors, class may vote for them. Boys whose credits are equal to or greater than the debits are satisfactory. All others go to third section. No debits or credits are carried over from one week to the next.

For further explanation, see page 51.

SECTIONS.—March 18, 1899.

1	2	3
Smith	Manz	George
Jones	Pranz	Henry
Brown	Franz	Frank
etc.	etc.	etc.
All <i>monitors</i> must be in this column.		
[Excellent in conduct and lessons.]	[Satisfactory in conduct but not in lessons.]	[Not satisfactory in conduct.]

For explanation, see page 53.

Before we go any further with the debit and credit record it is necessary to turn to the diagram headed, *Sections — March 18, 1899*. Such a paper is ruled each Friday at noon. It classifies your pupils into three grades on the basis of merit. It leaves almost no chance for biased judgment. It is an automatic method of finding out who is entitled to go home at two o'clock.* Because it is based on merit, it appeals to the child's sense of justice. If pupils have to remain until three they do not blame you, because you did not make the classification. They did it themselves by their conduct and lessons.

First you find all the names of pupils whose debits exceed their credits. These names you write in the column headed "3." This is your third section for the week. No boy on that list can have any privileges. No one can be a monitor. In the same column you write the name of every pupil who has been absent, tardy, or late, no matter what the excuse may have been.

The rest of the boys belong either to the first or the second section. You then take your record of lessons for the week. If these are upon

*The board of education of New York for many years had a by-law which permitted teachers to dismiss "meritorious" pupils an hour before the rest on Friday afternoon.

the whole satisfactory to you the name goes into the first column. If they are not satisfactory, or if a boy owes a home lesson, his name goes into the second column. A cross will indicate which pupils in the second section have, in your judgment, done as well as they could. These may go with the first section at two P. M. This section sheet, together with the system of debits and credits upon which it is based, is a very effectual means, if conscientiously employed, in the control of a class.

Other Uses of the Section Plan.

If the rules of the board of education or of the superintendent do not permit the dismissal of meritorious pupils an hour before the rest on Friday, other privileges may be employed to reward the members of the first section. There is usually some unassigned time which may be employed at the discretion of the teacher. The last hour on Friday is appropriate for general exercises, which may take a great variety of forms. One teacher known to the writer allows the first and second sections to take turns in providing a little entertainment each week. The exercises consist of readings, recitations, book reviews, stories, music, games, etc. The third section meanwhile are employed in doing work which they neglected during the week.

The objection sometimes urged against this

plan, that it makes invidious distinctions and humiliates some while exalting others, is invalid because in any case the teacher is obliged to sift his pupils before he can decide which are "meritorious" and entitled to be rated A or B at the end of the month. It is far better to employ a system which children can understand and the justice of which they can appreciate, than to sift a class by a mere arbitrary exercise of power.

The Star Sheet.

Another device, which is very effective in primary grades, is the use of little paper stars. The names of all the children are written on a large sheet, which is hung on the wall of the room. For different forms of well-doing, children have stars pasted on sheets opposite their names. A gold star may mean excellence in conduct, a red star excellence in writing, a green star success in spelling, and so forth. The principal and superintendent can help to make this device effective by showing constant interest in the number of stars found after the several names on the sheet.

Atmosphere.

Some painters are known by the atmosphere of their pictures. You would at once pick out one of Millet's masterpieces by the indefinable haze through which things are seen. The teacher creates in the class-room, by his presence and

conduct, a moral atmosphere. What should be the nature of this atmosphere?

One element is warmth. Children, like plants, must have an abundance of sunshine. Their souls bloom only in a warm atmosphere. A teacher who is habitually "cross" is like a biting frost: she may subdue, but has no power to develop. Let every teacher take the moral temperature of her room and see if the conditions are favorable for a *kinder-garten* (child garden). Discipline of the right sort is impossible without class-sunshine. One must be strict, but seldom angry; firm, but not gloomy; sometimes severe, but always cheerful. Especially on dark and stormy days must a teacher make an effort to be buoyant. On very warm days in summer a similar effort is needed to keep a teacher's temper sweet and calm. So sensitive are people to climatic conditions that principals expect unusual disorders on certain disagreeable days. This would not be the case if teachers practiced a little philosophy and fortified themselves against the trials of these known conditions.

But this negative method of making sunshine by inhibiting anger and controlling irritability is not the only one. A positive method is a temperate and wise use of humor. "A hearty laugh does more to harmonize discordant notes of school life than all the severe discipline." If a teacher

laughs heartily it is easy for children to believe her to be sympathetic and kind. Humor is to a class what oil is to machinery; it reduces friction. A normal class-room makes provision for the fun-loving instinct of children.

Mr. John Adams,* in a most interesting and valuable chapter, discusses humor under the title of "A Neglected Educational Organon." The entire volume of Mr. Adams is a capital illustration of the value of humor to the schoolmaster. Herbartianism, as usually treated by its disciples, is about as solemn as a funeral sermon. As presented by Mr. Adams, it reminds one of the "Autocrat of the Breakfast Table," for it takes the form of sprightly discourse illuminated by frequent flashes of wit and humor.

Mr. Adams introduces his discussion of the "Neglected Organon" by quoting a well-known London educator, who says: "All that a teacher requires is a knowledge of his subject, and a sense of humor." Then he quotes Goldsmith's couplet—

"Full oft they laughed with counterfeited glee
At all his jokes, for many a joke had he."

This leads to the inquiry why the schoolmaster's jokes are so thin and coarse that children laugh with "counterfeited glee." It is

* "The Herbartian Psychology Applied to Education," by John Adams, Boston. D. C. Heath & Co., 1898.

not our purpose here to discuss the causes; but as a candid observer we must admit and deplore the fact that teachers' jokes are often thin and coarse. As Mr. Adams says, "It is better to laugh at a bad joke than to cry over a good multiplication table"; but there is nothing in the nature of things that requires a school-room joke to be bad. While we advise, therefore, the free use of humor, we exhort teachers to watch the quality of their jokes. Above all, beware of the temptation to be sarcastic. Sarcasm is wit with a sting in it; and while it has the form of humor, its essence is distinctly savage. The humor that warms the atmosphere of a class-room is genial and kind and pure. Many a tendency to disorder can be checked by creating a ripple of laughter. The teacher's temper will keep much sweeter under provocation if she keeps herself ready to have a little fun now and then; the tension of her nerves is greatly relieved by an occasional laugh. Do not simulate hilarity by keeping on your face a stage smile; but let there be sincerity and heartiness in your fun as well as in your serious work.

A Catechism of Discipline.

No one can become a good disciplinarian by reading books or hearing lectures. Nevertheless, books and lectures have their proper uses. An effort has been made in the preceding pages to

define and analyze certain elements which good discipline always contains and to indicate some devices which have been successfully employed by good disciplinarians. The first step in learning the art of government consists in the recognition by the teacher that the disorder which he attributes to the depravity of the children is in most cases due to his own lack of skill. He must learn to trace wholesale disorder to a defect in himself—a defect of method, or of manner, or of character. A large majority of the children in any school will behave well if they are properly handled.

Let the poor disciplinarian begin his improvement by a searching self-examination. The following catchism may serve as a guide in this test:

1. Do I know the difference between order and discipline? What have I done to make my order the effect of my discipline?

2. Have I developed a class-spirit? Has my room any individuality that attracts my pupils?

3. Do I render to my superiors the obedience which I exact from my pupils?

4. Am I just? Have I ever been capricious? Have I punished children because I was angry? Have I ever been guilty of inflicting class punishment?

5. Have I relied upon myself as much as

possible? Have I acquired the habit of threatening children with the principal?

6. Am I in the habit of detaining my class after school? Does it pay?

7. Do I enjoy the solid respect of my pupils? If not, why not?

8. Do I teach so faithfully and successfully that every pupil must feel that it is worth his while to come to school?

9. What have I done to encourage children? Have I ever encouraged my bad boys? Do I recognize and reward fidelity as well as success?

10. Have I an honor class? What happens when my back is turned or when I am out of my room?

11. Do I allow "tattling"?

12. Am I deficient in executive ability? Am I on time with my records? Is my closet in order?

13. Am I drilling my children enough in their studies?

14. What is the tone of my class? What have I done to improve it?

15. Are my punishments *kind, fair, without revenge*, and approved by the *public opinion* of the class?

16. Have I carefully studied and graded punishments? Do I realize that it is not the *severity*

so much as the *certainty* of punishment that prevents offenses?

17. Do I have a cheerful atmosphere in my room? Do I scold or lose my temper? Am I glum most of the time? Have I employed sufficiently the sense of humor?

18. If I joke, are my jokes coarse or refined? Genial or harsh? Am I habitually sarcastic?

19. Is my class-room as pleasant as I can make it? What can I do to make my personality more winning?

20. To what extent is my class self-governing?

V.

Corporal Punishment.

The Spirit of the Preceding Discussion.

If you have followed the discussion attentively thus far, you must have noticed that emphasis was laid upon the self-control of the teacher which is to be exhibited in a just and humane treatment of children, in a quiet and dignified bearing before the class, in mellow tones of voice, gentle manners, and an air of repose signifying reserved power. The ideal held up throughout was an appeal to the personal influence of the teacher rather than to the authority of her position. She is to govern by force of character, by inspiring respect and reverence, by suggestion, by the public opinion of the class; and she is advised to reserve an appeal to the principal as the very last resort. Moreover, if she is the kind of teacher I should want for my own children, she will constantly preach the doctrine of peace

and good-will. She will make much of kindness to animals; she will try to arouse in children a love of life; and will endeavor to create the feeling that it is better to cherish and preserve life than to destroy it. A fly even is not to be killed merely for amusement. The abuse of a homeless cat on the street is to be unthinkable in my ideal teacher's class; and a boy in such a class would as soon aim his bean-flipper at his sister's head as at a harmless robin. The class-room is to be full of the spirit of the home. There is to be kindness, mutual forbearance and coöperation, and an atmosphere of cheer. The place is to be made as attractive as possible, so that the children may become thoroughly attached to it. Everything is to be pure, inspiring, uplifting; and the teacher's heart is to be the fountain of all this cheer and holy influence. Nor is this a mere dream. I can take you to a hundred class-rooms which exhibit all the characteristics described above; and in such a class *corporal punishment can not possibly be employed as a means of discipline*. Its use would instantly destroy the moral atmosphere of the room, and substitute the fear of physical pain for the moral and spiritual restraint imposed by subtle suggestion, by respect for character, and by the exaltation of justice, kindness, and self-control.

Corporal Punishment a Relic of Barbarism.

Time was when England had several hundred offenses punishable by death. We have reduced the number to two,—murder and treason. There was a time within my own recollection when the rod was the most conspicuous feature of the classroom. My early teachers in rural Pennsylvania had each a large collection of switches in a corner of the room. These varied in length and thickness to suit the age and character of the offender. Little folks were punished with little whips; while the big boys on the back seats were whaled with hickory sticks six or eight feet in length. It is often argued that the knowledge that corporal punishment may be inflicted is enough to terrify the unruly, and so its use is seldom necessary. Experience proves, on the contrary, that the more severe and frequent is corporal punishment, the more hardened and reckless is the sinner who endures it. It is notorious that many of the most disorderly children in school are the very ones who are beaten most unmercifully at home. A rod in the hands of a teacher has no terror for such children. A kind word, a belief in your fairness and kindness and efficiency, will do far more than violence to reclaim these.

In view of what has been done in the direction of humane school government it seems incredible that any intelligent teacher should advocate a

return to the barbarous methods now happily so largely abolished. It is absurd to say that a school can not be well governed without the rod, for the thing has been done in thousands of schools. Government by the infliction of bodily pain is crude and clumsy, whereas government by gentler means is a fine art. He who advocates corporal punishment simply confesses that he has not yet acquired the art of control. In place of skill he would employ brute force. The proposition is repugnant to the sentiment of humanity. Let who will control a school that way. As for me, if I had unlimited authority to employ the rod, I should frankly announce from the desk to the assembled children that I intended never to lay violent hands upon any of them, no matter what the provocation might be.

Firmness without Anger or Cruelty.

A teacher known to the writer once visited a certain *model* school in New York—a school which is supposed to exhibit correct methods of teaching and discipline—and, in the written report of her observations, she naïvely commented upon the order of the children in these words: “There was more spontaneity in the children’s conduct than we find in the public schools. For instance, some children were playing hide-and-seek during the geography lesson. Of course,

we could not allow quite so much freedom in our schools."

I desire to make it very plain that I am no friend of that kind of "spontaneity." On the contrary, I believe in strict discipline. I believe that when an order is given every child should obey it. I believe that the habits of children should be carefully looked after—habits of posture, of language, of silence, of attention, of obedience, of cleanliness, etc. In many subjects, like penmanship, drawing, and music, fifty per cent. of the success or failure in the teaching is a mere matter of discipline. If children have slovenly habits, if they have not been carefully trained to obey directions, the teacher's efforts are largely wasted.

Standard of Discipline To Be Established and Maintained by Principal.

The standard of discipline must be established and maintained by the principal. If he is indifferent or inefficient in this matter, the individual teacher labors in vain to improve the school. She may, by special exertion, maintain good discipline in her own class; but she must expend far more of nervous energy than would be required if the atmosphere of the whole school were for her rather than against her. Many principals who complain of the disorder and impertinence of children, and lay the cause to the

banishment of the rod, are themselves responsible for the conditions which they deplore. It may be safely asserted that a *principal who can not discipline a school without corporal punishment, could not do so successfully with corporal punishment*. Eternal vigilance is the price of a well-governed school. Self-direction is to be the watchword; but, while children are allowed to govern themselves, an efficient principal makes the detection and punishment of infractions of rules absolutely certain. He must hold himself responsible for the proper behavior of children in every class. If there is gross disorder anywhere, it is a reflection upon him; for if any teacher is unable to control the children, the principal must do it for her. The head of the school must see that every part of it is under the subjection of his authority.

The class teacher, too, must be strict. One can be firm without being angry. One can say plain things without scolding. One can command obedience without thrashing children. One can be consistent and persistent without being cruel. Even in a kindergarten and a vacation school there must be control. There is a great difference between freedom which children *take* because the teacher is too weak to prevent it, and freedom which a teacher *grants* because she is so strong that she can afford to do so. An ex-

perienced school officer will instantly detect the difference between the two. Freedom which is taken by children is bad everywhere, even in the kindergarten; and freedom which is granted must never go to the point of interfering with the effective work of the class.

Substitutes for Corporal Punishment.

According to the views here advocated, corporal punishment should be strictly prohibited. Neither the class teacher, nor the principal, nor any other representative of the school system should be permitted to lay violent hands upon a child. This rule being in force, it becomes necessary for every teacher to set up, from the beginning of her career in a school-room, the ideal of discipline which relies upon spiritual forces for control. The principal will be obliged to assume the responsibility of her training; which he can accomplish by precept and example, in the case of the average novice, in the course of two or three years. By "precept" we mean that the principal is to indoctrinate his teachers with correct principles of government, and is to suggest to them a variety of devices whereby good order may be maintained. Every new teacher is entitled to this help from her principal. By "example" we mean that a principal is to be a model of rational discipline and self-control. If he himself shouts and scolds and loses his tem-

per and occasionally strikes children, he never can expect the right kind of discipline in his school. It is possible that some of the principals who are clamoring for the return of the rod are guilty of some or all of these vices; and the defects of discipline which they attribute to lack of authority are really due to frailties of their own characters.

It is inevitable, of course, that there will be occasional cases of defiance of school authority. These must be provided for, because no government can tolerate open defiance. Rebellion must be put down at all hazards. Even corporal punishment is no guarantee that the spirit of rebellion will not thrive; for in the days of government by the rod, it was customary for the big boys to conspire and give the teacher a sound thrashing when they thought he needed it. Where corporal punishment is prohibited, the following graded list of means is suggested for dealing with incorrigible pupils:

(a) *Notify the Parent*.—When the teacher has exhausted her resources, she calls upon the principal. In such a case, however, the parents should be notified of the trouble, by mail or otherwise, and their coöperation should be requested. The writer's experience is that seventy-five per cent. of children reported to the prin-

principal never come a second time. One visit to the office is enough to effect a cure.

(b) *Send for Parent.*—The authority to send for parents should be conferred upon the principal, never upon the teacher. Business system requires that all communications to parents should emanate from the principal. He is the responsible head of the institution, and hence it is necessary for him to have personal knowledge of every transaction between the school and the homes. The rules of the board of education should give the principal authority to require parents to visit him when their children are disobedient. Such a visit in the majority of cases is sufficient to bring about a reformation of the pupil; because a father who is compelled to lose a half day's pay in order to straighten out the tangles of his boy in school is likely to take some pains to prevent the necessity of a second interview with the principal. Here is where corporal punishment is likely to begin; and here is where it rightfully belongs. If a parent thinks his child's education can be enhanced by the method of cutaneous irritation, let him take the responsibility.

(c) *Suspend the Pupil.*—In every school system there is lodged somewhere the power to suspend incorrigible pupils. The power of summary dismissal should be given to the principal.

After this there should be provided a formal trial before the superintendent. He should have the power, and in the State of New York it is his duty, to commit such pupils to a truant school or a similar institution during suspension. If this power is rigorously exercised in all proper cases, the last argument in favor of corporal punishment disappears. In the City of New York the principals and the superintendent have precisely the powers here suggested; and in the Boroughs of Manhattan and the Bronx in that city the schools have been successfully governed for a generation without corporal punishment. In Brooklyn corporal punishment was permitted until the final consolidation of the school systems under a central board of education in 1902, when the Manhattan rule was extended to all boroughs.

A Report on Corporal Punishment.

Many teachers and principals in New York believe the rod should be restored to the school-room. In the spring of 1903 a committee of the Male Principals' Association, of Manhattan Borough, made the following report:*

“ 1. We are in accord with the general spirit

*It is proper to remark that up to the time of this writing the Male Principals' Association has taken no action on this report, except to receive it at the hands of its committee.

of the laws governing punishments of refractory pupils; at the same time we must confess that there are children in our public schools upon whom the prevailing method of discipline has not the corrective influence it is intended to have.

2. We feel justified in recommending for these pupils sterner measures, for the following reasons:

(a) Every child, no matter how perverse he is, has the right to demand of us, as the chief element of his future welfare, that we train him to a wholesome respect for law. Training implies power to enforce obedience.

(b) The child's right is our duty, from which we are not absolved by the mere plea of sentiment.

It is unjust repeatedly to subject the well-behaved children to the contaminating influence of one or two of their class-mates, for each act of disobedience or of unseemly behavior leaves its impress upon the minds and characters of the youthful observers of it. The unruly children of the class, taking advantage of the limitations upon the powers of the teachers, waste the time of other pupils, make class management a difficult task, and in many instances conduct themselves toward teachers in a manner that would not be tolerated outside of a public school building.

We would, therefore, respectfully recommend that any pupil who, upon trial by the proper authorities, is adjudged unamenable to the prevailing method of discipline, shall thereafter be deemed subject to corporal punishment, to be administered by the principal or by some teacher designated by him."

In concluding this chapter I take the liberty of suggesting the following amended version of the above report. New matter is printed in italics. The report as amended carries out the spirit of the discipline recommended in this little book, and at the same time is in complete accord with the provisions of law now in force in the City and State of New York:

The Report with Suggested Amendments.

1. We are in accord with the general spirit of the laws governing punishments of refractory pupils; at the same time we must confess that there are children in our public schools upon whom the prevailing method of discipline has not the corrective influence it is intended to have, *either because the principal is inefficient, or because he has not availed himself of the authority conferred upon him by the laws as they exist.*

2. For reasons which follow, we feel justified in recommending for these pupils *a fearless application of the sterner measures provided by the*

rule which authorizes the summary suspension of incorrigible children by the principal.

(a) Every child, no matter how perverse he is, has the right to demand of us that we train him to a wholesome respect for law. Training implies power to enforce obedience. A *principal, therefore, who permits an incorrigible pupil to remain in the class and school is unjust to his teachers and derelict in his duty toward the offender, besides being guilty of violating the by-laws of the board of education.*

(b) The child's right is our duty, from which we are not absolved by the *fear that his suspension may in some way count against our records, or that the district superintendent may not sustain our action. If we have a good case and all the evidence is in proper form, public opinion will sustain us in spite of the district superintendent.*

It is unjust repeatedly to subject the well-behaved children to the contaminating influence of one or two of their classmates, for each act of disobedience or of unseemly behavior leaves its impress upon the minds and characters of the youthful observers of it. The unruly children of the class, taking advantage of the *incompetence of the teacher (for every school has its share of beginners) or the timidity or carelessness of the principal,* waste the time of other

pupils, make class management a difficult task, and in many instances conduct themselves toward teachers in a manner that would not be tolerated outside of a public school building.

We would, therefore, respectfully recommend that any pupil who, upon trial by the proper authorities, is adjudged unamenable to the prevailing method of discipline, shall hereafter be promptly *suspended by the principal in order that the city superintendent may commit such pupil to the truant school or similar institution, in accordance with the provisions of existing statutes and by-laws.*

VII.

Methods of Teaching Self-Government.

Class Organization.

In the preceding chapters it is insisted on that the basis of school government is justice and the end of it is self-direction and self-control. Physical force is never to be used, and authority only when influence fails. Self-government, however, is not attained in a day. It is a matter of progressive development and the result of systematic training. In the lower grades there will be relatively little, because the children lack both the knowledge and the training necessary to govern themselves. But even in the lowest grades the ideal of self-direction must be set up, and all the discipline is to look toward this great end. As the pupil advances in knowledge he should also progress in moral freedom, and in the highest grades his emancipation from outside control should be relatively complete.

Many devices which have been found useful

in attaining this desirable result have already been suggested. There remains one which in the writer's experience has been more effective in teaching self-government than any other. This is an organization of the class under the rules and forms of parliamentary procedure.

The Spellbinders.

For a number of years the successive graduating classes taught by myself in a public school of New York, were organized as "The Spellbinders," a title suggested by the political orators who stumped the State of New York in the fall of 1894. This class organization had a president, a vice-president, a secretary, a treasurer, and an editor. The term of office was for two regular meetings; that is, for two weeks. This afforded an opportunity for constant rotation in office. About twenty boys had a chance to serve as president during the year. The teacher was simply an ordinary member of the society. He had no greater privileges than any one else, except that he usurped the office of *prompter*. He insisted upon a strict observance of all the parliamentary forms. The president was drilled until he could call the meeting to order, put a motion, and conduct business generally in language which was not only grammatical, but was in accordance with the correct usage of popular assemblies.

The treasury seems like a useless office, when

it is recalled that the collection of money in a New York public school is forbidden by the board of education. Nevertheless, we found a way of getting money which did not violate the by-laws and was very effective in promoting the efficiency of the organization. A rule was adopted under which a member was fined one cent for not wearing his society badge (a bow of blue and white ribbon) during meetings, two cents for failing to return his library book on time, and five cents for neglecting a duty assigned to him on the program of any meeting. These fines stimulated the members to perform their duties, and at the same time gave us a little fund to purchase ribbon for class badges, books for the library, and occasionally ice cream and lemonade. Candor compels me to say that the teacher was fined about twice a month for neglecting to wear his badge. It may be remarked incidentally that at that time class libraries had not been officially established in New York, and the teachers who had them secured, by one means or another, their own books. In the present instance the books had been contributed by children, parents, and teacher, or purchased out of the treasury. The library was a part of the society organization, and the librarian was elected by the members. He and the treasurer were the only officers who held their positions during good behavior.

The editor prepared a manuscript paper which he read at the meetings. Four contributors were named for each issue. These were obliged to assist the editor by furnishing original contributions. Every article, before it went into the paper, had to be submitted to the teacher for correction. All editorials and the paper as a whole were submitted by the editor before he read the same. As a device for developing interest in composition the *Spellbinder's Weekly* was highly successful. The paper was thoroughly enjoyed by all, and every contributor had a motive for doing his best. Between serious articles there usually were sandwiched original jokes made at the expense of the members. In this game of jokes the teacher enjoyed no immunity; and he usually turned contributor himself, sometimes taking occasion to hit off in a jolly little paragraph the follies and foibles of the boys.

The secretary was obliged to write out his minutes very carefully and completely, and after correction by the teacher, to write them into the minute book. Nine volumes of such minutes, containing the doings of successive "Spellbinders" during five years, are among the priceless possessions of the writer.

During the meetings the order was entirely in the hands of the president, assisted by a committee on order consisting of one person.

The effect of this organization upon the "Spellbinders" was very remarkable. It resulted in revolutionizing the discipline of the class, putting it on a basis of honor, and substituting self-government for authority. Incidentally, it furnished the teacher a philosophy of discipline which he afterwards applied to the government of an entire school with the happiest results.

There are many other forms of class organization that might be described, such as "the school city," for instance; but in conformity with the plan of this book, it is thought best to present in detail one form, rather than vaguely the features of many.

Below will be found a complete copy of the constitution under which the class organization here described was effected:

Constitution, By-Laws, and Rules of Order.

ARTICLE I.—Name.

This Association shall be known as "The Spellbinders."

ARTICLE II.—Object.

The object of this Society shall be general culture and improvement in the art of public speaking.

ARTICLE III.—Membership.

All members of any class taught by Joseph S. Taylor (together with the teacher of the same) are members of the Spellbinders; but any member guilty of improper conduct may be reprov'd, suspended, or expelled by a two thirds vote of the members present at any regular meeting.

ARTICLE IV.—*Officers.*

The officers of this Society shall consist of a President, Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer, Editor, and Librarian. These officers shall perform the duties usually pertaining to their respective offices. No person shall hold two offices at the same time; and no person shall be eligible to the same office twice in succession, except the Treasurer and Librarian, who shall hold office until their successors are elected. All officers except the Treasurer and Librarian shall hold office for a term of two regular meetings.

ARTICLE V.—*Committees.*

The following Committees shall be appointed by the President to serve during one term of office:—

1. *Committee on Arrangements*, consisting of one person, who shall have charge of the Society's property and shall prepare the room for the meetings of the Society.

2. *Committee on Order*, consisting of one person, who shall assist the President in maintaining order.

3. *A Programme Committee*, consisting of three persons. It shall be the duty of this Committee to submit at each regular meeting a programme of exercises for the meeting next following.

4. *A Nominating Committee*, consisting of three members, whose duty it shall be to submit, at every alternate regular meeting, a list of nominations for the offices to be filled. It shall be their duty also to act as tellers of election, and to provide the members with blanks for ballots.

ARTICLE VI.—*Meetings.*

The regular meetings of this Society shall be held on Friday afternoons, beginning and closing at such hours as the Society may agree upon. The President shall call a special meeting when, in his judgment, it is necessary, or when requested in writing by five members. A majority of all the members shall constitute a quorum at all meetings.

ARTICLE VII.—*Order of Exercises.*

The exercises of this Society shall be as follows:—

1. Calling to Order.
2. Reading of Minutes.
3. Reports of Officers or Special Committees.
4. Election of Officers.
 1. Report of Nominating Committee.
 2. Other Nominations (if any).
 3. Balloting.
5. Miscellaneous Business.
 1. Appointment of Committees.
 2. Etc., etc.
6. Inaugural Address (Not more than 5 minutes in length).
7. Debate (Every alternate meeting).
8. Referred Question.
9. Essay.
10. Recitation or Reading.
11. Decision of the House on the Merits of the Arguments Produced.
12. General Debate.
13. Reading of *Spellbinders' Weekly*.
14. New Business.
 - Report of Programme Committee.
 2. Report of Tellers.
 3. Etc., etc., etc.
15. Adjournment.

ARTICLE VIII.—*Debate.*

Four persons shall be appointed by the Programme Committee to speak in regular debate, two on each side of the question; and these speakers, together with the Referee of a question, the Essayist, Reciter, or Reader, shall be limited to five minutes each. No person shall speak more than once in General Debate, nor longer than two minutes.

ARTICLE IX.—*The Paper.*

The paper of this Society shall be called "*The Spell-*

binders' Weekly." It shall be edited and read by the Editor; and it shall be the duty of the Programme Committee to appoint four persons as contributors to the paper for the meeting immediately following such appointment.

ARTICLE X.—*Parliamentary Law.*

All points of order not defined by the Constitution and By-Laws shall be decided on the authority of *Cushing's Manual*.

ARTICLE XI.—*Suspension.*

Any part of the Constitution, except Art. XII, may be suspended for a single session by a vote of three-fourths of the members present.

ARTICLE XII.—*Amendment.*

This Constitution and By-Laws may be amended as follows: The proposed amendment shall be submitted in writing, and can not be acted on at the same meeting at which it is proposed. Three-fourths of all the members must vote for the proposed amendment, and a quorum for amendment shall consist of four-fifths of all the members of the Society.

BY-LAWS.

ARTICLE I.—*The Library.*

SEC. 1.—Books may be taken out only on Friday or the last school day of the week; but they may be returned on any day of the week.

SEC. 2.—No books shall be kept out longer than two school weeks.

SEC. 3.—A member desiring a book shall write the catalogue number of it upon a card and hand the same to the Librarian on Thursday or the day preceding the last school day of the week. If several members call for the same book, the member whose card is first received shall be entitled to the book.

SEC. 4.—No member shall mark or in any manner injure a book. And it shall be the Librarian's duty to

examine carefully each book when it is returned and to report all violations of these By-Laws. A member found guilty shall forfeit the privileges of the Library.

RULES OF ORDER.

The following Rules have been prepared chiefly from Cushing's "Rules of Proceeding and Debate in Deliberative Assemblies." The figures at the end of the paragraphs refer to the sections in the Manual:

OFFICERS AND MEMBERS.

1. The President having taken the chair and called the Society to order, the other officers shall, at his direction, take their respective seats.

2. The President shall restrain the members within parliamentary usage (27).

3. The President shall have the preference to speak on points of order, but should always give an opportunity to any other member to express his opinions.

4. Any person addressing the Society or Chair shall rise.

5. A member is not entitled to the floor until he has addressed the Chair, and has been recognized by the Chair (46).

6. If two or more members rise and address themselves to the Chair at the same time, or nearly so, he should give the floor to the member whose voice he first heard (47).

7. The person by whom a motion is made should be entitled to the first speech (204).

8. If a member be misrepresented by a speaker, he should be entitled to the floor to defend himself.

9. A member shall not be interrupted while speaking, except to call him to order, to ask leave to explain, or to state a matter of privilege.

10. A member digressing from the matter of the question, or using improper language against the Society or any member, shall be called to order (228).

11. A member called to order shall take his seat until the point is decided (unless he is permitted to explain), after which he may continue his remarks if the Society does not object.

APPEALS.

12. If the decision of the Chair is not satisfactory, an appeal may be made immediately after the decision has been rendered by the President (154).

13. An appeal must be made in writing, signed by three members (154).

14. The question is then stated by the President: "*Shall the decision of the Chair stand as the decision of the Society?*" After having been open for debate, it is decided as any other question (154).

15. The President is allowed to take part in the debate, either from the Chair, or by appointing a Chairman *pro tempore* while he occupies the floor.

16. A motion to lay an appeal on the table is always in order.

MOTIONS AND RESOLUTIONS.

17. When a motion, made and seconded, has been stated by the President, or caused by him to be read, it is in the possession of the Society (56).

18. Before a motion is in the possession of the Society, it is not in order for any other motion to be made, or for any member to speak on it.

19. After a motion is in the possession of the Society, it cannot be withdrawn by the mover, if objections are made to the withdrawal, unless he obtains leave to do so, by a motion made and seconded as in other cases (56).

20. Before a motion has been stated or read, it is competent for the mover to withdraw or modify it without any motion for the purpose (56).

21. When a motion is regularly before the Society, no other motion can be received unless it is privileged (58).

22. No motion can be made without rising and addressing the Chair, and being called to by the President (200).

23. When a question has been decided, a motion to reconsider it can not be made before some other motion or business has intervened.

24. Motions to suppress a useless or inexpedient proposition, are the previous question and indefinite postponement (60).

Motions to defer the consideration of a question are postponement to some future time, and to lie on the table (60).

QUESTION OF ORDER.

25. A question of order may be raised by any member, and is decided without discussion by the President, as follows: "*The point is well taken*" or "*The point is not well taken*," as the case may be. If his decision is not satisfactory, however, any member may appeal from it and have the question decided by the Society, subject to the rules for appeal (154).

DEBATE.

26. No member shall interrupt another while speaking, except in accordance with Rule No. 9.

27. No person in speaking shall be allowed to mention a member then present by his name; but shall describe him as the member who spoke last, or last but one, or on the other side of the question, or by some other equivalent expression.

28. No person shall digress from the matter of the question under debate, to fall upon the person of another, and to speak reviling, nipping, or unmannerly words of or to him.

29. All motions, resolutions, etc., are debatable, except:—

1. A motion to adjourn.
2. A motion to lie on the table.
3. A motion for the previous question.

4. A motion to read a paper, pending a question.

ORDER AND SUCCESSION OF QUESTIONS.

30. When a question is regularly before the Society, no other question can be put except,—

1st. Privileged Questions:

Motion to adjourn;

Question of privilege;

Motion for orders of the day.

2d. Incidental Questions:

Question of order;

Motion for the reading of papers;

Withdrawal of a motion;

Suspension of a rule;

Amendment of an amendment.

3d. Subsidiary Questions:

Motion to lie on the table;

Motion for previous question;

Postpone to a day certain;

Commitment;

Amendment;

Postpone indefinitely.

These motions are arranged in their order of precedence among themselves.

31. A motion to adjourn, unqualified, takes precedence of all others, and is always in order, except,—

1st. When a member is speaking;

2d. When the Society is voting;

3d. When no business has been transacted since a motion to adjourn has been decided in the negative.

32. When no other business is before the Society, a motion to adjourn may be amended. When it supersedes the pending question, it must simply be to “adjourn,” without any particular day added, and cannot be amended (137).

33. A motion to adjourn except to a day certain, is not debatable.

34. A motion to lie on the table decided affirmatively, removes the matter before the Society, until by a motion and vote it be again taken up (172).

35. A motion to lie on the table cannot be amended (170), nor can it be debated.

36. When a member moves the previous question, and this is seconded, the Chair must immediately put the question: "*Shall the main question be now put?*" A negative decision suppresses the main question for the day (64). If decided in the affirmative, the main question is to be put immediately (65).

37. A motion for the previous question cannot be amended (170), or debated.

38. A motion to postpone to a day certain may be amended by substituting one day for another (176).

39. A subject should be referred to a committee when more careful consideration is required than can be given in the Society. A subject may also be recommitted (73).

40. A motion to commit or recommit may be amended by substituting one committee for another, by altering the number of members, or by instructions (181).

41. In form an amendment may be made by,—

1st. Inserting or adding certain words;

2d. Striking out certain words;

3d. Striking out certain words, and inserting or adding others (94).

42. An amendment may be amended (96), but an amendment to an amendment cannot be amended (97).

43. An amendment to an amendment must be decided first (165).

44. A vote either adopting or rejecting an amendment cannot afterward be altered (98), except to reconsider (256).

45. A motion to postpone indefinitely may be amended by making it to a day certain (176). A matter indefinitely postponed cannot be renewed (67).

TAKING THE QUESTION.

46. The President having stated the question, he puts it in the affirmative, thus: "*As many as are of opinion that [repeating the question] say Aye;*" and then in the negative, thus: "*As many as are of a different opinion, say No*" (238).

47. If the President is unable to decide the question by his ear, or if any member desires it, he shall direct the Society to divide by rising, that the vote may be counted (241).

48. If the members are equally divided, it then becomes the duty of the President to give the casting vote; in doing which he may give his reasons (243).

YEAS AND NAYS.

49. Any vote may be decided by yeas and nays when ordered by seven members. Every member present is required to vote (244).

50. In order to take a question by yeas and nays both sides are stated at once, as follows: "*As many as are of opinion that [stating the question] will, when their names are called, answer Yes; and as many as are of a different opinion will, when their names are called, answer No.*"

51. After the question has been thus put, the Secretary shall call the roll, and each member, as his name is called, shall rise and answer Yes or No (245).

52. When the vote has been taken, the Secretary shall read over the list of names, first on the affirmative, then on the negative, to afford an opportunity for correcting any mistakes that may have been made in recording the votes, after which he shall count the votes and report the number to the President, who will then declare the result to the Society (245).

53. During the progress of the vote, no motion is in order, nor can the debate be renewed (247).

RECONSIDERATION.

54. Any motion may be reconsidered, provided the

motion for reconsideration be made and seconded by members who voted with the majority (257).

55. If the motion for reconsideration prevail, the subject is again open for debate on the original motion, in the same manner as if that motion had never been passed (257).

COMMITTEES.

56. A Committee may be appointed to consider any particular subject, to obtain information, or to perform certain duties (261).

57. A Committee may be instructed by the Society at the time of appointment, or while in the performance of its duties, if necessary (262).

58. Standing Committees shall perform their duties as designated in the Constitution and By-Laws of the Society.

59. The number on a special Committee shall be determined by the President, or the members of the Society (264).

60. The member first named by the President shall act as Chairman, or the Committee shall elect its own Chairman, unless he be designated by the mover of the motion to appoint (273-274).

61. A Committee once discharged may be revived. A Committee appointed for one purpose, may perform other duties of the same or a different character (269).

62. The Society may resolve itself into a Committee of the Whole, on motion regularly made and carried for the purpose. The President shall announce the result of the vote, and designate some member to act as Chairman, or the Committee may, by regular motion, elect a Chairman (297).

63. A Committee of the Whole shall observe the following rules: —

1. The previous question cannot be moved by the Committee (303).
2. The Committee cannot adjourn (304).

3. It cannot refer any matter to another Committee (306).
4. Every member may speak as often as he can obtain the floor (305).
5. The President may take part in the debate and proceedings (307).

64. To dissolve a Committee of the Whole, a motion that the Committee rise, must be made and seconded, which being carried, the President of the Society shall resume his seat (310).

65. A Committee of the Whole shall report through its Chairman, or some other members, to the Society, at any time fixed by the Society.

JOSEPH S. TAYLOR,

HENRY J. CLINCH,

JOSEPH T. O'BRIEN,

Committee on Constitution.

VIII.

Class Room Decoration.

Why We Decorate.

(a) There is, first, the desire to adorn the school-room. All normal persons love the beautiful. Children feel more at home in a room that is tastefully decorated than they do in one whose aspect is plain or ugly. Superintendent Kratz found that out of 2,411 children questioned fifty-eight per cent. mentioned personal appearance as one of the elements which attracted them. Every legitimate effort should be made by the teacher to make himself and the school-room attractive to the child. Neatness in personal appearance and appropriate decoration of the room are such legitimate* means.

* It may be added, by way of caution, that to bid for popularity by catering to children's caprices and excusing them when they ought to be punished, is not a legitimate method of attracting them. They themselves describe a teacher guilty of this practice as being "soft." They admire a strict disciplinarian, if to his rigor he adds impartial justice.

(b) But beautiful surroundings are demanded not merely for the purpose of attracting the child in order that he may be successfully instructed in the different branches of the curriculum. There is education of the highest order in the beautiful environment itself. Refinement can never be taught merely by precept. Example, in matters of taste, is far more potent with the child than formal instruction. A neat teacher begets neatness in his pupils. A slovenly teacher finds his untidiness reproduced in his class, and an exhortation from him on tidiness would scarcely be taken seriously by the children.

A beautiful class-room is in itself an eloquent teacher. The very walls become a means of grace to the child. His æsthetic ideals are refined, his judgment is cultivated, and he will thus be prepared to enjoy the beautiful in nature and art. It is not depreciating teachers to say that they themselves are sometimes in need of the culture that comes from systematic attention to æsthetic details of school environment. Teachers, even those who teach art, are often lacking in good taste, particularly in matters of dress. Intelligent and persistent effort to keep one's self and the school-room tidy and attractive must react and develop one's own æsthetic judgment.

How to Decorate.

Much may be accomplished in school decoration, negatively, by the mere application of the principles of good house-keeping. Window sills covered with empty flower-pots, wash-basins, and milk bottles can hardly be considered evidences of tidiness and cleanliness. Walls, doors, and desks bespattered with ink do not add to the attractiveness of a room. Neatly painted walls that have been carelessly soiled, or marked, or defaced by the driving of nails betray a want of taste as well as a lack of consideration for another's property. The floors should be kept clear of litter; the blackboard should be washed at least once a day; the moldings and the work exhibited on the walls should be frequently dusted. In all these matters it is our duty to train the children; and how can we consistently require of them what we ourselves do not practice? The teacher will always find willing hands to do this work of tidying up. He need not do any of it himself, but he must assume the responsibility of it and supervise the doing.

The bare room itself should be beautiful. Here the work of the school architect is of the highest consequence. He must consider it his duty not only to render the room hygienic and comfortable by regulating the size, light, ventilation, disposition of seats, etc., but also to

make it pleasant to the eye by reasonable architectural adornment and by providing agreeable tints for the walls and ceiling.

The school authorities have in some cities added to the features enumerated above pictures and busts of recognized artistic merit. But where school boards do not feel justified in using public funds for the purchase of school-room decorations, the ingenuity of the teachers must be depended upon to supply the deficiency. Of course, they cannot be expected to buy out of their meager salaries works of art to adorn the schools. They will, therefore, be obliged to rely chiefly upon children's work and upon such school property as may have decorative value.

Children's work, however, seldom possesses genuine artistic merit. Yet it has other uses which make it important as an aid in teaching. Good school work of any kind stimulates pupils to greater effort. The teacher's model may be so perfect as to discourage the pupil; but there is always a measurable distance between the achievement of one pupil and his less successful companion. In penmanship, composition, and drawing, very much may be accomplished by putting up the work of the more successful pupils as models.

At the beginning of a term the work of a previous class may be used; but as soon as pos-

sible this should give place to specimens produced by the new class.

Work of unusual merit may be put up for the term; but a great deal of work which is only relatively good, though far from perfect, may be temporarily employed as a stimulus during the recitation period. Work that is put up for the term should have no manifest or glaring errors or deformities. For instance, if a letter is exhibited it should be reasonably accurate as to form and substance. If a drawing or painting is shown, it must not be of a character to offend the taste of cultivated persons. And—let it be repeated again—under no circumstances must such work be allowed to accumulate heaps of dust; nor must it be allowed to remain in place after being torn, or curled, or otherwise damaged. Just as soon as work ceases to be beautiful or useful it becomes an offense.

A modicum of good taste, a liberal use of common sense, and a cheerful spirit will accomplish wonders in making a room attractive without the purchase of expensive pictures.

One of the most effective means for making a room attractive is the use of things that are alive—either plants or animals. In almost any room at the beginning of a term, seeds may be planted and left on the window sill. If the pots are not themselves attractive their deformities

may be readily covered over with tinted paper. An aquarium or balanced jar is also ornamental as well as useful. Such a jar should, as a rule, be kept out of direct sunlight. It may be placed on the teacher's desk, or, in a room with northern exposure, there is no objection to having it near the window.

In putting up work it is advisable to use tacks sparingly and nails not at all. A small drawing or composition fastened with four clumsy carpet tacks is not an edifying spectacle. If thumb tacks are not available pins are usually sufficient to hold papers. Where a number of specimens of the same kind are to be exhibited, the papers should be of uniform size and pinned together in strips, which are then suspended side by side; or they may be arranged horizontally in the form of a frieze or border.

Care should be taken to have specimens "well placed;" that is, placed with due regard to space-filling, symmetry, and proportion. If a paper is fastened against a panel it should be exactly in the center. I have seen teachers spend much energy in trying to get a pupil to "place" his drawing well on paper, who afterwards took the finished drawing and "placed" it very badly on the wall of the class-room.

Much care should also be exercised as to the appearance of the blackboard. Its daily washing

is assumed. The teacher's penmanship should be large and legible. Here also the "placing" of matter is an item of importance. Matters of a permanent character, like the history of the attendance, should be neatly and compactly kept in a corner. Work of a temporary character should generally be immediately erased. For this purpose it is well to have one or more monitors who attend to the cleaning of the board without waiting to be told.

Let every teacher who has not given this matter serious attention make up his mind to start immediately. Let each devote a little thought to the problem of his particular room. Begin with the *negative* items by avoiding, as far as possible, the features that disfigure—the litter on the floor, the spatter on the wall or desk, the display of ugly and dirty objects on the window sills. If you have any pictures, consider well the most appropriate place for each. Then hang them without driving nails into the wall. If you have display work made by your last class, select only the best, and again make up your mind to put it up without the use of nails. Take as much interest in making your temporary quarters in the school cozy and attractive as you would if they were your permanent abode. And, above all, do nothing to disfigure the rooms, nor allow the chil-

dren to do anything which you would not do or allow to be done in your own home.

In this discussion I have purposely refrained from any reference to school decoration which involves the outlay of money. The principal or the club or the citizens' committee may do wonders and transform a desert school-house into an artistic fairyland. This is the sort of work that is usually described in articles and books on school decoration. But the vast majority of class-rooms in the public schools are dependent upon the resources of the teacher for all the adornment they ever possess. The most attractive feature in any room is, of course, "the ornament of a meek and quiet spirit" possessed by the teacher. But in addition to this he may embellish the plain walls of his room, cover up deformities, and make vacancy eloquent with suggestion by the use of the simple means I have endeavored to point out.

VIII.

The Care of School Property.

The Ethics of the Case.

Benjamin Franklin was an uncommonly wise man. On the subject of borrowing books he has this to say:

“I now had access to better books. An acquaintance with the apprentices of booksellers enabled me sometimes to borrow a small one, which I was careful to return soon and clean. Often I sat up in my room reading the greatest part of the night, when the book was borrowed in the evening and to be returned early in the morning, lest it should be missed or wanted.”

The principle exemplified by Franklin's conduct is that you are to be more careful of borrowed property than you would be if it were your own. He not merely returned the books *soon* and *clean*, but took extraordinary pains to be punctual.

The teacher must make conscious and emphatic

the ethics of the use of school property. But here, as in all cases of discipline, practice must tally with precept. If the teacher himself is wasteful in the use of supplies, and careless with school property in general, his good advice to children will fall on deaf ears. "How economical shall we be?" teachers sometimes inquire. The answer is, "Use school supplies as if you owned them." What would you do if your class were your private school and the tuition fees included the necessary supplies? You would give children everything they needed, but would be careful not to waste anything. You would not use a full sheet of white paper to spell ten words. You would not allow a dozen children each to destroy three or four sheets of paper in the course of a drawing lesson. You would not have great stacks of new paper carelessly thrown on the floor of a dirty closet, or left exposed where dishonest pupils might take it at pleasure.

The municipality is the proprietor of these schools. You are the agent of the city. As such agent you must adopt the motto: "Millions for necessities, but not one cent for waste."

One of the first things you must impress upon a new class is this ethical principle. Call the attention of the children to the advantages they possess. We are sheltered by a comfortable building, furnished free by the liberality of

the taxpayers. Our books, stationery, maps, and appliances are freely offered in abundance by the same liberal public. The very least we can do to show our appreciation of these gifts is to take good care of them. How indecent, how wicked, is the pupil who wantonly destroys or defaces school property!

Furniture.

Having delivered this homily, it will not do to drop the matter for the rest of the term. Nor will it be wise for the teacher himself to climb, a moment later, upon a desk and stand upon the varnished top in order to reach a shelf in the wall closet. No matter how old the furniture is, as a matter of principle, no pupil should be allowed to stand upon the unprotected top of a desk for any purpose. If he is well trained he would not thus stand upon a chair or piano or bureau at home, and he should be so taught in school that his habit, if not his instinct, will induce him to protect school property from unnecessary defacement.

If the importance of this matter is thus early impressed upon a class, and if they are warned against these least offenses, the graver matter of carving desks will take care of itself. If a boy finds that the smallest scarring or scratching is treated as a serious affair, it will never occur to him to cut a desk. Whether the fur-

niture be in good condition or bad, the teacher must make up his mind that it shall at least be no worse when he is through with it than it was when he took charge of it.

Text-books.

The pupil in the public school of to-day has books literally thrust upon him. Not only does he receive all text-books, pencils, pens, paper, ink, drawing material, etc., free of charge, but a school or class library is usually provided for him, besides a large supply of supplementary readers on music, literature, science, history, and geography. Our first duty is to remind the child that these things cost a lot of money (an average of about two dollars for a grammar pupil per year in New York city) and that somebody has to pay for them.

In former times children were required to buy their own books. This plan has some undoubted advantages. One is that the pupil can keep his books for future reference when he leaves school. Another is that if he chooses to do so he may make marks in his books, insert notes and explanations in places where the same are needed, emphasize thoughts or expressions of special importance, and thus make such matters more easily accessible and available for future use. All accurate scholars like thus to mark their books so that in case of need they may turn to

them, as to old friends, for assistance. But our inflexible rule in respect to a borrowed book is that the pupil shall not mark it in any way. One can hardly feel the same reverence for a book that must be thus carefully handled and kept at a safe distance, that he has for a book that is his very own to have and to hold and to mark up as he pleases.

1. *Receipts*.—When books are delivered by the supply department to a school the principal is obliged to give a receipt for the same. This makes him the responsible custodian of such supplies. The careful principal will probably demand a similar receipt from teachers when he gives out books at the beginning of a term. In case of inquiry he will thus be in a position to show what he has done with the books he receipted for. But if the teacher is to receipt for books, how is he to prove his faithful stewardship? By requiring in his turn a receipt from the pupil. Let each child, when books are given out, write upon a slip of paper the names of all the books he receives, together with a mark indicating the condition of each, and then sign and date the slip. Let the teacher arrange these receipts in alphabetical order and file them away. When books are returned the pupil may have his receipt or it may be destroyed. If at any time a pupil claims not to have received a certain book, his

receipt will settle all doubt. Likewise, if he be charged with having wantonly destroyed his books, the receipt will either prove or disprove the charge.

2. *Covered*.—Every book should be covered at the beginning of each term and kept covered. If the authorities furnish patent covers, the matter is easy. Where this is not the case, considerable vigilance on the part of the teacher will be required to keep covers on the books. Flimsy wrapping paper or newspaper covers should not be accepted. Nothing but stout manila or cloth will do. Cloth is sometimes objected to on account of its germ-bearing capacity, but if all books are recovered at the beginning of each term, the argument against cloth is not valid, and the advantages of such material are very decided. It easily lasts a whole term, children are not tempted to scribble on it, and the expense and trouble involved are an additional incentive for taking good care of the books.

Every pupil should be required, on receiving a book, to enter in ink on the inside of the front cover the following information: (1) Name; (2) School and class; (3) Condition; (4) Date.

Once a month the books should be inspected, and their condition should be reported to the parents as a part of the monthly record.

Supplementary Reading.

These are usually kept in some closet in charge of a particular teacher, where they are accessible to all the classes of a given grade. When a teacher sends for a set of supplementary readers he should have them counted before they are given out and again after they are collected. He will then be able to testify from personal knowledge, in case of need, that no book went astray in his room. While the books are in use he should be particularly careful that they are not mutilated or marked by the children. The temptation to injure such books seems to be very great, because it is difficult to detect the culprit. Unless the keenest vigilance is constantly exercised it may happen, for instance, that a new set of physiologies will be unfit for use at the end of the first term. On the contrary, in a well-disciplined school, a set of readers will last for years.

Closets Locked.

Keep your closets locked. Children should not be tempted by the exposure of attractive material. When you least expect it something valuable will disappear. Pupils from other classes passing through your room may turn thieves, and, peradventure, your own may be guilty. It is always easy to be wise after the event. After your watch or purse or valuable wrap is gone,

you realize how foolish it was to have been so careless. It is difficult to catch the thief, and if you accuse innocent children you are sure to get into trouble with their parents. It is a safe rule never to leave your room without locking up every closet and drawer.

The school authorities have provided locks, and why should we not use them? The very moment a lock is broken or a key lost the principal should be notified, that he may take steps to have the damage repaired. I have had more than one teacher complain about the disappearance of her supplies who, when questioned, admitted that the lock of her closet was broken and that she had never reported it. Good class management includes proper care of the physical condition of the classroom.

A teacher's artistic temperament should make it intolerable for her to look upon a broken window-shade, or a dilapidated wall map, or disarranged and dusty decorations of any kind. What she can mend should be attended to by herself; the rest should be reported to the principal.

IX.

The Class Library.

How to Secure Books.

Whether the library of the school is to be administered as a single institution or is to be divided into as many sections as there are classes is a matter for the decision of the principal or superintendent. But in either case the teacher has a certain responsibility. The suggestions here made apply chiefly to the class library, but the remarks on the "Purpose of a library," "How to realize the object," and "Who may use the library," are equally pertinent in the case of a general library.

The books should be supplied by the principal, either out of the special library fund or out of the general supply fund, if this be permissible. Resourceful teachers, however, find means of establishing libraries even where no official assistance is given. Pupils can be induced to loan or contribute books out of their private stock at

home. Sometimes a class paper is published (possible only in the higher grades) at a profit, and perhaps well-to-do parents who learn of the ambitions of the class, insist on making a special contribution. At any rate, in nearly all cases where there is a will to gather a library, a way is found to do it.

The teacher must exercise wise caution in accepting contributed books. He must rigidly exclude all trashy stuff, all books whose print is too small, everything of a sectarian character, everything that is in any way morally unfit for children. Some of the finest classics in English will thus have to be rejected. "The Scarlet Letter," for instance, or an un-edited copy of "Gulliver's Travels" would, in my judgment, be improper reading for a child in the grades.

The Catalogue.

A complete list of the books in the library with title, author, and catalogue number should be accessible to every pupil. If the number of different books is small, children may copy the catalogue into their note-books. If this involves too much labor, let a single copy be posted in a convenient place in the room.

Who May Use the Library.

Some teachers restrict the privileges of the library to the use of meritorious pupils. This

course is not to be commended. "Bad" boys are such sometimes because they have not enough work to keep them busy. The library books in such cases are very useful in furnishing material for the exercise of idle brains. Frequently, too, an indifferent pupil becomes interested in regular school work through a skilful use of the library. The only children that are properly denied access to the library are those who mark or destroy books. A pupil who loses or fails to return a book when due, should be compelled to replace the same. Failing in this he must be promptly sent to the principal.

The Limit of Time.

Two weeks is a reasonable time to allow for the return of a book. Usually the reader should have the privilege of renewal for a week or two longer.

Purpose of the Library.

The immediate and primary aim of the school library is the enjoyment of good books. In this respect the reading of library books is to be sharply distinguished from other school reading. Pleasure may be an incidental aim in other reading, but here it is the chief one. Information, which in "supplementary" reading is one of the primary objects, in library reading is incidental. We propose here the literal application of the Herbartian doctrine of interest; namely, that

interest is the end of the whole business, and knowledge a means of acquiring it. The object of the library is to give the pupil an appetite for good books. This can only be done by letting him taste the literary dainties that tickle his own palate. There is no use in telling him he ought to read this and that, or he ought to read with this and that purpose in view. Library reading, to be effective, must be done by the pupil's voluntary effort; and unless he is interested in the books you give him, you have no guarantee that he will read any of them to please you.

For these reasons the selection of books for a class library is an exceedingly difficult task. Publishers issue volumes by the thousand, but, alas, how few of these are suitable for any given grade! If they possess interest, they lack literary merit. If they have this merit, they are too difficult. Sometimes the text is suitable, but the pictures offend. Then, again, both these may pass muster, but the type is too small, or the spacing is too narrow, or the paper is too poor, or the binding is objectionable. The library catalogue of Manhattan Borough, New York City, formerly contained more than three thousand titles. Yet when one undertook to select from it books for class reading he was sorely puzzled to find material that was entirely satisfactory from all points of view.

How to Realize the Purpose.

Interest in reading being the primary aim of the library, what can the teacher do to stimulate that interest? Providing the right kind of books is, of course, the most effective means; without these the task is well-nigh hopeless. There are a few master minds, like Franklin and Lincoln, who in childhood devour with relish works on divinity, philosophy, and other abstract themes; but the majority of children are not attracted to this class of reading. For them the book must be simple in language and must treat subjects specially adapted to the experiences and fancies of childhood.

The reading may be done either at home or in the class-room. If it is done in school there must be a "reading hour," and enough copies of one book to supply each pupil. It is better to have fifty copies of one good book than one copy each of fifty books. The advantage of having many copies is (1) that the teacher is able to conduct class exercises, and (2) the interest is greatly intensified when all are reading and discussing the same book at once.

Whether the reading be done at home or at school, it should be carefully and appreciatively done. Each pupil should give before the class an oral or written account of at least one book during each term. He should be taught to note

the name of the author and to find out something of his life and the names of other books he has written. The teacher may, at convenient seasons, read effective passages from works of class authors not found in the school library, and thus the interest is widened and deepened, so that children will, of their own accord, join free libraries and read books of which they have heard from their teachers.

Index.

Anger	19, 26,	65	—graded punishments	46, 47, 49
Adams, John, on humor		57	—debts and credits	51
Butler, N. M., on human infancy		17	—sections	53, 54
Busy work		34	—the star sheet	55
Catalogue of library		109	—atmosphere	55
Catechism on discipline		58	—humor	56, 58
Carving desks		102	—standard of discipline established by principal	66
Characteristics of the best teacher		28	—notify parents	69
—he relies on himself		28	—send for parents	70
—does not detain children		29	—suspend pupil	70
—secures pupil's respect		30	Dewey, John, ideal of education	8
—described by children		31	Discharging pupils	42
—teaches faithfully		32	Discipline and order	23
—encourages children		35	Dogmas of childhood	11
—lays stress upon honor		36	—pagan	11
—employs humor	56;	58	—Christain	12
Children's work for decorative purposes		96	—theological	14
Class organization		76	—romantic	15
Class library		108	—evolutionary	16
Class punishment		30	Drill	40
Class-room decoration		92	Economy in the use of supplies	101
Cleanliness		44	Eliot, Charles W., on individualism	9
Closets locked		106	Ethics of the care of school property	100
Corporal punishment		62	Executive ability	38
—spirit of this book		62	Factors of discipline	25, 38
—a relic of barbarism		64	—executive ability	38
—firmness without anger or cruelty		65	—drill	41
—standard of discipline established by principal		66	—discharging pupils	42
—substitutes for	68,	71	—giving out material	42
—where it is proper		70	—class spirit	43
—report on, 71; suggested amendments		73	—class tone	44
Credits		52	—punishments	45, 49
Decoration of class-room		92	Faults of children	19
—why we decorate		92	Firmness without anger or cruelty	65
—how to decorate		94	Franklin on care of property	100
—children's work		96	Furniture, use of	102
—plants and animals		96	Government, basis and end	76
Devices of class government			Graded punishments	49

Index.

Herbart's ideal of education	8	Principal responsible for	
Incorrigible pupils	69, 70	order	66
Ideal of discipline	67, 68, 76	—must train new teachers	68
Ideals of education	7	—a model of self-control	68
Individualism in education	9	Property, care of	100
Infancy, Butler's definition		—ethics of the case	100
of	17	—furniture	102
Judd, Charles H., on evolutionary theory of education	18	—text-books	103
Justice and efficiency	25	—supplementary readers	106
Justice, the basis of school government	21	—closets locked	106
Kratz, H. E., on characteristics of best teacher	31	Public opinion of the school	48
Library, class	108	Punishments, graded	49
—how to secure books	108	Rebellion not to be tolerated	69
—catalogue	109	Receipts for supplies	104
—who may use the library	109	Report on corporal punishment	71
—limit of time	110	Rousseau's ideal of education	9, 15
—purpose of library reading	110	Rules of order for Spellbinders	81
—how to realize the purpose	112	School order defined	21
Living things for class-room	96	Scolding	26, 68
Locking closets	106	School room decoration	92
Mahaffy on ancient child murder	11	Search, P. W., on individualism	9
Material, passing of	43	Sections in class	53, 54
Milton's ideal of education	8	Self-government, methods of teaching	36, 76
Monitorial system	23	—class organization	76
Montaigne's ideal of education	8	—Spellbinders	77
Nails not to be driven into walls	97	—officers	78
New ideals of discipline	18	—constitution	80
Obedience and command	23, 66	Social ideal in education	10
Order and discipline	23	Spencer's conception of education	8
Order defined	2	Spontaneity	65, 67
Organization of class	76	Star sheet	55
Parker on school order	22	Sup'n't'r'y readers, care of	106
Parliamentary procedure	77	Suspension of pupils,	70
Plants and animals for class-room	96	Text-books, care of	103
Practice and precept	101	Truant school for incorrigible pupils	71
		Voice, use of	26

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